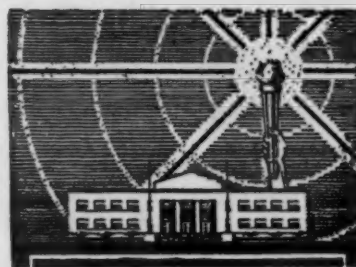


THE SOCIAL STUDIES



A PERIODICAL
FOR TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

VOLUME XLIX, NUMBER 7

DECEMBER, 1958

THE CLEARING HOUSE

is the *working partner* of the principal

— but there's something

in every issue for *every faculty member!*

For the Principal: CH is the working partner of the principal because it is devoted primarily to reporting best current *practices* in school administration and curriculum, and to keeping principals informed of developments in the junior and senior high school subject areas. Each issue contains a prodigious amount of useful information on the principal's primary concern — *the educational program of his school.*

For the Faculty: In addition to the reports on courses and teaching methods in various subjects, each issue contains articles of general interest to all in the junior and senior high school program. CH features and departments are written and presented with a sparkle that raises professional reading to the point of entertainment.

•

Sample copy sent on request

Subscription price \$4.50 a year

•

THE CLEARING HOUSE

Published monthly September through May

by

Fairleigh Dickinson University
Teaneck, New Jersey

The Social Studies

VOLUME XLIX, NUMBER 7

DECEMBER, 1958

LEONARD B. IRWIN, *Editor*

A. E. MCKINLEY, JR., *Managing Editor*

HYMAN M. BOODISH, *The Teachers' Page Editor*

DAVID W. HARR, *Book Review Editor*

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER, *Visual Aids Editor*

EDITORIAL BOARD

JULIAN ARONSON
Bushwick High School
New York, N. Y.

BESS HEDGES
College High School
Bartlesville, Okla.

ROY F. NICHOLS
University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.

EDWIN M. PURINTON
Maine Central Institute
Pittsfield, Me.

JAMES J. FLYNN
Fordham University
New York, N. Y.

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON
Cazenovia Junior College
Cazenovia, N. Y.

CHARLOTTE M. NOTEBOOM
University of South Dakota
Vermillion, S. D.

HOMER T. ROSENBERGER
U.S. Department of Justice
Washington, D. C.

THOMAS WOODY
University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.

Contents

As The Editor Sees It	242
Reform, Not Revolt: A Study of British Education	E. W. Ellsworth 243
Konstantin Pobiedonostzeff 1827-1905	V. L. Albjerg 249
Reflections on My Visit to Titoland	J. S. Roucek 255
Ideas And The Educational Process	S. M. Levin 258
A Definition and Framework For Geography	H. J. Vent & R. B. Monier 263
The Teachers' Page	Hyman M. Boodish 267
Visual and Other Aids	Irwin A. Eckhauser 270
Book Reviews and Book Notes	David W. Harr 272
Current Publications Received	276
Index for Volume XLIX	278

THE SOCIAL STUDIES does not accept responsibility for the views expressed in articles, reviews, and other contributions which appear in its pages. It provides opportunities for publication of materials which may represent divergent ideas, judgments and opinions.

EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.
Subscription \$4.00 a year, single numbers 60 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to April inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Copyright, 1958, McKinley Publishing Co. Second Class Postage Paid at Philadelphia, Pa.

As the Editor Sees It

Fiction with an historical or "period" background has long been a staple of popular reading. One of the earliest and best, Thackeray's *Henry Esmond*, has been followed by many thousands of the genre. Some have been written chiefly for young people, like the many fine books of G. H. Henty a generation or two ago. Others have been excellent combinations of scholarship and good writing for adults, such as *Rabble in Arms*, *The Crisis*, or the works of Hervey Allen, to mention only a few among hundreds. And some have been lending-library potboilers, best-sellers only because of their romantic glamor and frequent salacity. Most of these do not deserve the classification of historical fiction, for the historical aspects are merely a painted backdrop for a plot which could have equally well been played against a hundred other settings.

In spite of the disservice which these latter have done to the repute of historical fiction, we believe that the better examples serve a highly worthwhile function in presenting the concepts and understandings of history to young people, as well as providing good entertainment to anyone. We feel that the teacher of history at almost any educational level cannot afford to ignore the assistance which good period fiction can give him in conveying to his students a feeling for the past and a sense of reality about historical events and personalities.

Good historical novels must be more than stories in which the characters wear "costumes," speak in an archaic dialect, and allude in the present tense to Charles II or Henry of Navarre. We would like to suggest a few criteria to aid the teacher in selection. One requisite is that the basic plot should be dependent upon a significant historical situation, rather than upon a contrived situation merely laid in the past. A marital triangle or a story of love and violence gains no greater significance simply because it is portrayed

in a 17th century setting. Again, in a good novel, the historical background is sound in its total effect as well as accurate in its specific details of events. The primary value of the fictional form is to paint a picture which will give the reader the impression of familiarity with a period of the past. If the sole purpose were to explain a series of past events, pure historical exposition would be more effective and economical.

In a good historical novel, the fictional characters should be subordinate to the action. If it is well-written, the characters will be interesting without having to predominate the scene. They should develop naturally and unobtrusively from the sweep of historic events in which the story is laid. There have been many excellent novels whose purpose was the analysis of human character; for these the author can construct plots and settings for the occasion. But the true historical novel seeks rather to recreate the past, and the characters invented by the writer should serve merely to dramatize the plot that history has already provided.

Not all of the incidental action need, of course, be historically true. It is permissible for an author to invent "business" for his fictional characters. But it must be consistent and reasonably typical business for the period depicted, or it will convey to the reader an untrue picture of the times. The same standards apply to the portrayal of historic characters. What they do and say in the novel need not be provable facts, but they must be consistent with what scholarship does know of their words and actions.

A good historical novel, then, which meets these criteria, is well and interestingly written, and not so long as to challenge the physical endurance of the reader, can be an excellent adjunct to the history text. A teacher will be well repaid who becomes familiar with the good ones, and advertises them among his pupils.

Reform, Not Revolt: A Study of British Education

EDWARD W. ELLSWORTH

Wheelock College, Boston, Mass.

In the British Isles the turmoil of war caused much self-examination and hastened far-reaching domestic changes. Naturally, political and social developments had reverberations in education, but even back in the complacent thirties a revised school system had been suggested by the Hadow Reports and the Spens Report of 1939. Now, as political unanimity has been reached concerning governmental care of the British citizen from infancy to old age, education has become a vital part of the plan to provide a happier, healthier, and more prosperous life. Accordingly, under the impulse of equalitarianism, sweeping changes and additions have been made in the educational system but endemic reverence for the past, to some extent, explains the conscious effort made to preserve what had been the pride of the nation. To the social scientist the innovations in education offer a fruitful area for study as they are so strikingly shaped by, and, in turn, are shaping the whole social fabric of postwar Britain.

Current conditions seem more significant when related to an historical survey however brief it may be. The origin of English education is found in the word "voluntary" which meant "private" and "religious." Throughout the middle ages religious bodies, leading ecclesiastics, and noble and royal personages established a number of schools both large and small which ranged in time sequence from Warwick in 914, Winchester in 1382, to Eton in 1440. For varying tuition charges, such foundations gave pre-university training to a small segment of the population preparing for careers in the church, royal service, or

learned professions. Interest in education, already strong at the time of the Wyclif Movement, was intensified by Renaissance ideas and the vogue of humanism. St. Paul's, Westminster, Rugby, Shrewsbury, and Harrow were established in the sixteenth century. But correspondingly, the Reformation caused a convulsion in education as heavy financial support was withdrawn and the number of educational opportunities decreased. Although the principal schools continued to prosper in Elizabethan and Stuart days and a few new ones arose or some were refounded, the pernicious religious strife of the seventeenth century prevented any concerted educational expansion. In addition, dissident religious elements were excluded from the existent institutions. Historically then, the English system was extremely selective and geared to create a cultured gentleman skilled in classical languages and conversant with the cultural heritage of Western civilization. The roots of education were (1) importance of the corporate entity as well as independence of the school, (2) scholarship wedded to the training of character for public leadership, and (3) a religious orientation.

Neglect of education of the lower classes was not recognized in any substantial way until a private organization, the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, at the end of the seventeenth century, undertook a sustained but futile plan to give some form of education to the ever-growing and poverty-racked working class. As a result, by the early eighteenth century, charity schools had sprung up in most sections, but they provided only the merest rudiments of literacy

and reached only about one child in fifteen. With the Industrial Revolution as a background, this movement expanded through the activities of the British and Foreign School Society and the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church. In the early nineteenth century, a more secular spirit entered this educational work through the efforts of the Colonial School Society and the Ragged School Union; nonetheless, the picture was not materially changed. Not until 1833 did the national government become interested in education, and in that year the first hesitant step was taken, viz., a grant of 20,000 pounds to two of the aforementioned societies. But assistance to private education grew annually until by 1861 it had risen to 840,000 pounds, and the monetary grants were accompanied by a narrow system of supervision. Gladstone's Liberal Government in 1870 passed the famous Forster Act which initiated public education in a haphazard way. Private schools were undisturbed and actually governmental grants to them were enlarged. New schools were set up only in areas that desired them, and the financial partnership started between local authorities and the London Government has continued until the present. The three R's had become available to all children up to the age of eleven. Not until a decade later, however, was school attendance made compulsory and not for an additional ten years were all fees abolished. By the opening of World War I, the elementary system had been marked out in full fashion but opportunities for secondary training were woefully inadequate. Hardly more than one in ten experienced real secondary education, which was of a highly academic nature and furnished by the Grammar Schools founded since 1902. In these schools annual fees ranged from 9 to 30 pounds although free scholarship students usually accounted for 25 to 30% of the enrollment. Notwithstanding the limitations of this system, the student was intellectually prepared for the classically oriented British university. The great void was recognized in

that the Fisher Act of 1918, and its supplement of 1921, directed the local powers to offer some secondary instruction for those who terminated their formal education at the legal minimum age of fourteen, even if it were an adjunct of the elementary system.

In 1944 as hostilities were coming to an end, the National Education Act was passed, but the scheme did not begin to function fully until 1948 and in fact is still in the process of evolution. A secondary education became a requisite for every British child; naturally the elementary system had to be somewhat revamped in order to achieve a concatenation. Voluntary Nursery Schools exist for those between the ages of three and five. Presently a child must enter an Infant School at the age of five years where he remains until seven; advancing then to the Junior School he receives instruction until eleven. In some country districts infants and Juniors are in one building. At the elementary level the curriculum and methods of instruction are quite similar to those found in the United States. At the approximate age of eleven the child takes a rather extensive examination, to determine what secondary school he must enter, and at this point his educational future is decided. A recent innovation, however, is the "late developer's test" for those at the age of twelve or thirteen who, for one reason or another, did not reach their full potentialities earlier.

Secondary education as it existed prior to 1944 has been retained, although revised as to numbers and social groups in attendance, but, in addition, a whole new system has been reared alongside it. The Grammar Schools represent the old group of secondary institutions; to them go perhaps 20% of the intellectually superior students as shown by the test previously mentioned. These children are offered college preparatory courses. Standards are high and the work exacting, and yet a good blend of physical education and extra curricular activities forms a part of the total program. A majority of the young people, about two-thirds, attend the new Modern School and a smaller percentage (10-15%)

find their way to the Technical School. Obviously the new Modern Schools carry a very heavy burden for they must fulfill requirements of a great cross section of the population. In 1945, advice from the Ministry to these newly formed schools stressed activity and experience and soft pedalled the academic approach. Great variations in methods and curricula exist throughout Britain today; in some schools methods vary from projects to topical interest approach, and from formal class set-ups to very informal ones. Often-times the principal occupations of an area find academic reflection in the school system. Generalizations are somewhat difficult and yet in the past few years, for numerous reasons, the emphasis upon academic work and its natural auxiliary—tests, has gained position in the Modern School. Happily, experimentation and enthusiasm is the order of the day. Assessment of the work being done is not easy because of the short life span of these schools and the serious problems that confronted them at their inception, such as recruitment of adequate faculties, financial stresses, lack of proper facilities, and diversity of philosophy. Moreover, many districts still lack a complete system of such schools and so students are temporarily cared for in a makeshift way. Clearly, the Modern Schools are operating at a psychological disadvantage; because they are new and do not cater to those who will enter the professions, public prejudice is still keen. They are looked upon as catch-alls or educational step-children. A far greater danger is the tendency for faculties and directors to have similar attitudes, and as a result decide that a student body of average ability requires merely a superficial type of education. Beyond this, upper level students frequently hope to transfer to a Grammar School, which has a demoralizing effect. At the other end of the scale, a number of students of low intellectual ability could be directed elsewhere if enough programs were available. Although Great Britain has made remarkable advancement in the past generation in providing special facilities for the backward child and the

maladjusted one, expense and lack of trained personnel has limited this project. A subject much discussed is raising the compulsory attendance age to sixteen, already sanctioned by Parliament. Quite obviously the Modern School would be the chief beneficiary as more depth could be given to the curriculum. In the case of the Grammar and Technical Schools, a good portion of the students already continue beyond the fifteen year level.

The Technical Schools are not trade schools in our sense of the word. They occupy a position somewhere between the Grammar and Modern School and offer a general course, with the addition of technical subjects; orientation of the curriculum, to the student's particular aptitude, increases as he reaches the upper form and preparation is given for future training as technologists, engineers, and skilled workers.

In order to see the total picture, at least passing reference should be made to private education. As many as 500,000 children attend private schools, mainly Anglican, Roman Catholic, and other denominations, in comparison with 6,500,000 enrolled in public institutions. Private education is of two types: one completely independent of the government operates on its own financial resources; the other is subsidized by the government and conforms to certain broad regulations. It would be complicated and rather superfluous to sketch out the different relationships set up between private school authorities and the Ministry (controlled, aided, and special agreement schools), especially since an analysis of private education is not germane to this article.

It is questionable whether the nation has reached a definitive pattern of education at the secondary level. Naturally the educational system is vitally affected by dominant political and social philosophies of the age. The Labor Party is a strong advocate of large comprehensive institutions embracing grammar, technical, and modern courses and on numerous occasions such views have been included in the platform of the Party. As a

representation of this ideology Margaret Cole, in the *New Fabian Essays* published in 1952, forcefully criticized the present arrangement. The London County Council has already partially adopted the comprehensive school program. What this change would mean if applied to all of England is impossible to calculate.

"To place your potential leaders at secondary school age in a forcing-house away from contact with their less gifted contemporaries . . . seems to me to destroy their own right to that wholeness of education which we have earlier postulated, to lower the level of school life for those not so selected, to be a blatant denial of principle, and further to be a very dangerous means of promoting the totalitarian managerial society which we all allege we fear."¹

The apprehension in this country that Government aid means dictation is not so apparent among British educators. Although the national government pays the larger portion of educational costs (for example, in Shropshire 60%), close state control does not exist. If one examines the momentous Act of 1944, the Minister of Education is vested with vast power if he chooses to use it yet he is restricted somewhat because Parliament periodically passes upon his regulations. A fairly happy partnership has been maintained between the Ministry and County school authorities. In each County two inspectors are appointed by London but they exercise more of an advisory than supervisory function. In practice the state sets down general policies from which the counties can diverge, or supplement, and the County Councils have control over important matters like the annual educational budget, number of teachers for each school, etc. The long tradition of monetary grants is partially responsible for the flexible relationship. Increase in support has been made without too much bureaucratic meddling. Moving downward in the chain of organization, administration within each county is still quite decentralized as every primary school has its

Board of Managers and every secondary school its Board of Governors. Membership of each Board is usually limited to six people composed of respected citizens in the community. The principal of each school, however, is the key figure in determining the curriculum, the internal organization of the school, choice of books, and methods used. Surprisingly, the adoption of public education has not obliterated the historical concept that each school is an independent unit. The disadvantages of this idea are so obvious that they do not need to be pointed out in detail. In short, it is assumed that every headmaster is endowed with wide and special abilities and understanding in regard to curriculum, personnel, educational philosophy, and the like. One advantage lies in the esprit de corps in the schools, for a student feels attached to an institution that has a certain individuality rather than to an amorphous county or city system, and in Britain such loyalty is consciously fostered. Doubtless though, the most inevitable drift is toward a larger and larger orientation, by local educational authorities, to a central government agency. Can the citizen who has accepted the preeminent role of government in his economic life, and as the principal agent to secure his health and general welfare, long resist the idea that the same government should closely direct his education, so essential to both his social and economic well being?

Social welfare philosophy has been reflected in many fields. Free milk is offered to all, and lunches are provided for the nominal sum of a shilling to those who can pay and free to those who cannot. On quite a different level but indicative of the same spirit, university training is no longer the exclusive privilege of upper income families. A rather complicated scheme of government assistance to collegiate students has been devised. Aid is awarded, to a limited degree, on a nationwide basis (national scholars), but the bulk of assistance is handled by local educational authorities and varies according to the financial position of the family, the university

selected, academic record, etc. Today about 73% of all students are wholly or partially subsidized in the universities. This, of course, means that the future economic and intellectual life of the nation will be enriched by utilizing the abilities of bright children from low income families. Undoubtedly a new intellectual aristocracy is being launched. As would be expected, the fourteen universities have opened the doors to a swelling stream of students. By the early 1950s the college population was 70% over that of 1939.

Today the superior student is not so likely to be lost or thwarted in his upward climb as the middle-level student who finds it somewhat difficult to gain recognition. Opportunities await the youth but they are quite limited and he must compete in a rigorous way in order to gain them. To many working-class families, admission of a son or daughter to the Grammar School is a passport for that child to move upward financially and socially, hence family pressure upon the student is considerable. Educators are aware of deficiencies, but the past decade has absorbed energy and funds in organizing and launching a broadened educational pattern; vexing problems are not a thing of the past. Now, undoubtedly, just as challenging a phase lies ahead, that of supplementation and revision. One of the many concerns of thoughtful people is continuation institutions for those who leave school at the minimum age. The County College Plan of 1944 spelled out this idea but it subsequently fell by the wayside. Schools of this type have proven to be most successful in Germany.

Adult education has come to the fore with real vigor in the last few years. Since 1945 the mature person's desire to enrich his life in an intellectual way has been recognized, by the creation of twenty-five adult colleges. These institutions offer short programs, that is, non-credit weekend courses, some light and pleasurable and others more serious and challenging, so as to meet the needs of the people with varied educational backgrounds. Oftentimes these particular colleges are most

attractive and pleasant places in which to spend a few days. An examination of one of them may point up this facet of education. Attingham Park, located about four miles from Shrewsbury, in Shropshire, is one of the gracious eighteenth century manor houses. It has been turned over to the National Trust by the Berwick family and has been partially transformed into an adult college. The cost for room and board, together with the educational program, for a weekend amounts to about two pounds per person. The course offerings run the gamut from Creative Leisure, English Country Dancing, A Mozart Weekend, A Purcell Weekend, The Gothic World, German Baroque, to Christianity and Politics, etc. Frequently, special groups hold conferences at these institutions, e.g., in 1956, at Attingham Park, the Shropshire teachers held weekend programs on "The Backward Child," and "Junior Crafts;" the Birmingham School of Architecture sponsored a program on the Modern Movement; and army officers of the district conducted a symposium on current affairs.

In summary, the new system of education requires close scrutiny to determine whether London reaches her objective, i.e., adequate education for the majority and recognition, stimulation, and full opportunity for the intellectual elite. The first part of the goal is new, the latter has been merely transformed into provision for the intelligentsia irrespective of social position or wealth. To carry out this program a questionable compromise has been made between opposing forces — long cherished traditions of local control versus centralism drawing its strength from a social welfare philosophy and heavy financial contributions. Educational and political groups are skirmishing around the unresolved question whether or not semi-isolationist education of the superior student runs counter to the political and social philosophy of the times; and further, whether it best utilizes the educational potentialities of the nation. Current educational philosophy has been applied far more in the Modern School than in college preparatory institutions, a re-

vealing commentary in itself. The British public has deep reverence for education that centers on the superior intellectual group, and democratic leavening has meant that more and more people have been attracted to those limited educational facilities which, in the British Isles, require of the student both a high level of intelligence and a high degree of diligence. Just how long and with what intensity the clamor for places in Grammar Schools will continue is a matter of speculation. Moreover, at the present time perhaps it is over-exaggerated. In his recent article "The New Society in Britain," C. F. Mowat refers to an investigation by the *London Times* which showed that large numbers of the working class do not hold the old ambitions for their children in that genteel occupations were not all important.² Material comforts are the goals of many, and since the end of the war, increase of salary among white collar workers has not at all matched the percentage of increase in pay of skilled workers.³ The drive, therefore, to move upward in the class structure, by entrance into white collar jobs might be abating as the economic leveling process continues. Will the ensuing decades in which the working class reigns supreme bring about a more comprehensive reconstruction of an educational system, reared principally in the late nineteenth century and based on a philosophy acceptable to an alliance of the aristocracy and middle class? At this stage the old ideals are still strong and fascinate the average Englishman. Given this extraordinary opportunity to reshape and create courses of study at the secondary level where interests are developed and foundations established for future occupations, has technical and scientific education been stressed, encouraged and dignified sufficiently as a counterweight to the heavy humanities orientation of the past?⁴ The function and position of the Technical School could very well be reassessed in order to increase its impact upon the indus-

trial economy, and a natural corollary would be a sweeping expansion of technical and engineering institutes, so qualified personnel would be available to develop atomic energy for industrial purposes which is so vital to Britain's future. Significantly, the Labor Party charges that advanced scientific education has not been handled in a far-sighted manner. Besides, the recent scientific advances by the Soviet Union have forced a reappraisal of education in all western countries. On October 12, 1957, following the Conservative Party's Annual Conference at Brighton, Prime Minister Macmillan stated: "We need young men and women, qualified to handle the new processes and techniques which modern science develops day by day. Hence, the 100,000,000 pound expansion of technical education."⁵

The Modern Schools have merely filled a gap and it is far too early to chart their course. They could easily stagnate in their present position, or, conversely, invigorate the educational scene.

Certainly the working out of the aforementioned situations is of lively concern to both the educator and social scientist. Already the altered educational system is refashioning the social structure, and in all probability future historians will consider changes in the social scene, in the next generation, more revolutionary than in any previous era in British history.

¹ Margaret Cole, "Social Democracy," *New Fabian Essays* (R. H. S. Crossman, editor; London: Turnstile Press, 1952), p. 109.

² C. F. Mowat, "The New Society in Great Britain," *Virginia Quarterly Review*, 33:345-356, Summer, 1957.

³ *Loc. cit.*

⁴ On this very point, on November 15, 1957, in a press interview, Sir Ben Lockspeiser just retired as chief advisor to the British government on scientific research programs, stated . . . "English education still suffers from the idea that the gentlemanly thing is to study the humanities rather than the sciences."

⁵ *Bulletin of the British Information Services.*

Konstantin Pobiedonostzeff

1827-1905

VICTOR L. ALBJERG

Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana

The spirit of every age finds its embodiment in some great leader. One hundred years ago, Otto von Bismarck epitomized the yearning of the German people for national unification. Simultaneously, Lord Palmerston personified affluent and confident England at the zenith of its power. During World War I, Georges Clemenceau exemplified French resistance to the hated invader, and a generation later, Sir Winston Churchill typified Britain at its very best. Forty years ago Nikolai Lenin dramatized the convulsive forces of the Russian Revolution.

At the close of the nineteenth century Konstantin Pobiedonostzeff mirrored repressive, reactionary and bureaucratic Russia. This future Procurator of the Holy Synod was born 125 miles north and west of Moscow, the son of a university professor and the grandson of a hardworking deacon. His professional training was in law, not theology. He established a superior scholastic record in the Imperial School of Jurisprudence in St. Petersburg. Since he preferred teaching to the practice of law, he taught in several universities and finally accepted the chair of civil law in the University of Moscow. From 1866 to 1900 he was the private tutor to heirs of the Russian throne, first to Nicholas, oldest son of Alexander II. When Nicholas died his father continued Pobiedonostzeff in the same capacity for his second son who became Alexander III, and he in turn retained Pobiedonostzeff to tutor his son who ascended the throne as Nicholas II.

Pobiedonostzeff was well qualified to execute his significant responsibility. He was an authority in the field of history. He was a scholar with several books to his credit in law. He had delved into philosophy, and he

was an accomplished linguist with a speaking command of German, French, English and Latin, and a reading knowledge of Italian, Czech and Polish. At seventy-six he began the study of Chinese. With European guests he habitually conversed in French. He read American authors, with a special fondness for Emerson, Hawthorne and Whittier, some of whose works he translated into Russian. He possessed an insatiable lust for reading, and on more than one occasion he took a train for Moscow merely to escape interruption while he pursued a favorite volume.

He was sensitive to beauty in literature, art and ceremonial. In his personal relations he was ethical, considerate, kind, and even gentle — provided his associate's point of view was not at too sharp variance with his own. He was simple in his tastes, and abstemious in his habits. In appearance he resembled a contemporary Harvard professor. He was neither imposing nor prepossessing. He had none of the physical charm of Metternich, nor the robust vitality of Bismarck, but rather the thin, prosaic aspect of an undernourished monk in lay attire. Though he had no children of his own, he delighted in playing with other people's offspring — and with kittens. And this modern Torquemada quailed under his wife's abusive tongue.

A number of factors contributed to his winning the confidence of three czars. As a tutor his professional competence was superior, and as a man, his integrity was beyond reproach. His loyalty to the czar and his cause was absolute. His simplicity and his lack of personal ambition were downright appealing. In an era of intrigue, inefficiency and aggressive selfishness, he appeared like

a white raven in a flock of vultures. On that account the unintellectual czars not only tolerated, but valued his blunt speech and unadorned summaries of national problems.

Pobiedonostzeff had considerable administrative experience which culminated in his appointment to the Council of State in 1872. In 1880, at the age of fifty-three, he became Procurator of the Holy Synod, a position he held until 1905, and in that capacity he exercised power equivalent to that of Cardinal Richelieu in France. So influential was he that his support of a proposal enacted it into law; his opposition to a measure consigned it to the ashbin of history. Officials were appointed or dismissed at his whim, and petitioners convened in his office in search of favor or guidance, while letters from all over the world converged upon his desk.

His credo can be classified in three words: One Russia, one creed, one czar. His enthusiasm for Russian nationalism was that of a fanatic, his devotion to autocracy approached that of a bigot, and his fervor for orthodoxy was that of a zealot.

His nationalism manifested itself in Slavophilism. To him Russian civilization was a way of life peculiarly adapted to Russia. Its origin, he maintained, sprang from the country's remote past, and each generation had inherited that which was best of the past, and had added its contribution in response to its special needs. In consequence, Pobiedonostzeff insisted that Russia had developed a civilization definitely superior to all others, and with greater possibilities of development. If only other nations would leave her alone, and let her work out her own destiny, Moscow would yet become the Third Rome. The Eternal City had had its day of grandeur, but it had succumbed to its splendor. Constantinople had luxuriated in its magnificence, but had surrendered to its brilliance, had lost its vitality and the pre-eminence of the world. If Russia would only remain loyal to her own virtues, Moscow would pick up the torch of civilization and endow it with a new luster and carry it to higher levels of achievement.

For Russia's civilization, he claimed bal-

ance, composure, virility and capacity for progress *ad infinitum*, beyond all western pretensions. Russia had faith; the West had knowledge, but the kind that was destructive of faith. Russia's civilization was indigenous, while western culture was alien, an adaptation of Greek and Roman. Western Europe was a conglomeration of conquests and amalgamations; Russia's state was an expansion of one of its own institutions, the mir. So prideful was he of his country that he endorsed the Russian proverb: "Every Russian devil praises his own swamp."

It was not enough that Russians should dedicate themselves to Mother Russia, but non-Russians within the Empire should renounce their national allegiances and develop an exalted ardor for Muscovy. Poles, Balts, Armenians, Georgians, Kalmuks, Finns and all the other non-Russians were to abandon their pride in their past and join the chorus of the Russian hallelujah.

To effect that end minorities were deprived of their universities, which were reorganized as Russian institutes of propaganda. Secondary and primary schools were hedged about with restrictions, and in some cases were purged of their native language, literature, curriculum and texts and replaced with "Made in Moscow" varieties. On one pretext or another, native newspapers were suppressed and Russian substitutes appeared. The Russian language was required in offices and courts. While most of these changes were effected by the minister of interior, behind him stood Pobiedonostzeff, the man of influence and power. Like Baron Hollstein during the reign of William II of Germany, who kept a card file of every significant German with notations of their scandals and other vulnerabilities, so Pobiedonostzeff had his associates similarly catalogued. He could expose them all, and they knew it.

Pobiedonostzeff's central idea in government was the union of the crown and the people. It would insure equilibrium and stability. It would restore Russia to its state of primitive innocence—his definition of autoc-

racy, the unlimited prerogative of the czar. This would, of course, also impose a Byzantine inertia and result in the serenity of the cemetery. He justified his theory on the basis of its origin, and condemned deviations, not only as criminal and sinful, but also as fatuous.

He divided Russians into two classes: rulers and the ruled. The first should furnish leadership, while the second should serve, submit and obey. The secret of Russian psychology lay in blind obedience and unquestioned submission of the masses to the iron law of czarist absolutism. If the lower order withheld obedience, Pobiedonostzeff would impose it by force if necessary. "Mankind without force would be a heap of sand without any bond, dispersed by every wind on every side. By inherent force . . . are men united in society. It impels them to seek a leader with whom to commune, whom to obey, and whose direction to seek. Inspired by a moral principle, this instinct acquires the value of a creative force uniting and elevating the people to worthy deeds and to great endurance." Here was the concept of the common herd and the elite leadership, the ideological ancestry of totalitarianism. He attired the traditions of autocracy in a halo of religious unction. He assumed that those entrusted with power also possessed a corresponding sense of civic and moral responsibility, a postulate the basis of which was remarkable for its absence in Russian officialdom. He maintained that power was "great and sacred"; but functionaries from the imperial ministry to the village council usually regarded it as license to corruption.

His confidence in the leaders was accompanied by his cynical contempt for the masses. Since his disdain of the public was almost without parallel, his misgivings about democracy were almost unequalled. According to him, human nature was vile and contemptible, and fusing these qualities into majority rule merely accentuated man's villainy. Compounding zero and sin did not produce sense. According to von Schweinitz, the German ambassador to St. Petersburg,

Pobiedonostzeff "saw the work of the devil everywhere."

Because of this outlook he was worse than a medievalist. If he could not restore Russia to the thirteenth century society, he at least hoped to crystallize it in its contemporary political posture. Von Schweinitz insisted that he had the *Weltanschauung* of the thirteenth century and the *Wissenschaft* of the nineteenth century.

Pobiedonostzeff, therefore, did not embrace democratic ideals. He maintained that democracy was based upon a delusion. According to him, governing demanded "precision of knowledge attained only by few persons who constitute the aristocracy of intellect. The mass always and everywhere is *vulgar*, and its conceptions of necessity are vulgar." Furthermore, democracy, he said, was the most complicated and most burdensome system of government ever recorded in history. To rule was beyond the competence of the common man. Popular sovereignty, he interpreted as popular nihilism. He maintained that government should come from the elect of God, and not from the cranks in the crowd. He, therefore, regarded Thomas Jefferson as having been "mentally unbalanced," and Lincoln's thesis of government of the people, by the people and for the people as "the greatest heresy since Servetus denied the Trinity." For public opinion and the will of the nation he had nothing but scorn. The claim that the voice of the people was the voice of God was the ultimate in blasphemy. "Majority rule" was merely the tyranny of the majority, the worst of all tyrants.

Since he despised democracy as "an absurd comedy," it is not surprising that he deplored constitutionalism and parliamentarism. "These Satanic" contrivances were but others of the "grandest falsehoods of our time." Parliamentarism was a fatal error, "one of the most remarkable in the history of mankind." This type of democracy was nothing but demagoguery. "All for the public good" was but a literary deception and a political snare. Parliamentarism was but the triumph of egoism, for the representative did not

represent; he promoted his own interests; his constituents were his herd. Elections were manipulated into mere farces of their real function. Brilliant and shallow appeals were substituted for reasoned argument and constructive statesmanship.

In Pobiedonostzeff's view parliaments inaugurated and perpetuated political instability, the very opposite of his concept of government. He cited the disequilibrium in France, Italy and Austria-Hungary as proof of his indictment of parliamentary government. He conceded, however, that in countries in which democracy had deep roots, as in England, it might function satisfactorily. Its transplantation was impossible. He deplored that even in Russia political tricksters were endeavoring to "establish this falsehood among us." Alexander III, however, put him at ease: ". . . As long as I am alive and it pleases God to maintain me in this difficult position which he has designated for me, I shall not permit this falsehood to establish itself in Holy Russia. . . . Let them curse me in my lifetime, and after my death, it does not matter. A day will come when they will be grateful to me."

To Pobiedonostzeff freedom of the press was license to disseminate lies. Since the adoption of freedom of the press, "falsehood had ruled the world." ". . . The press is one of the falsest institutions of our time." The newspaper, he insisted, "has usurped the position of the judicial observer. . . . It judges not only the actions and words, but also affects a knowledge of their unexpressed opinions, their intentions, and their enterprises; it praises and condemns at its discretion. It incites some and threatens others."

He considered journalists vicious and irresponsible. "They can attack, defame, dishonor and injure me and my material interests. . . ." For such conduct he insisted that a "monarch would lose his throne, a minister would be disgraced, impeached and punished. But journalists stand dry above the waters they have disturbed, from the ruin they have caused, and they rise triumphant, and briskly continue their destructive work."

Pobiedonostzeff, in the face of what he considered outrages, did not remain an inert observer. In 1882, one year after he had become Procurator of the Holy Synod, through his influence, a censorship was imposed that almost paralyzed the press. Obsequious sheets were tolerated; others were dealt with summarily. They were denied advertising and the right to sell their sheets on the streets. Certain persons were forbidden to serve as editors. The power of unlimited fines was placed in the hands of local governors, who imposed tremendous assessments for minor infractions. Editors found themselves in a dilemma; if they observed the rigid regulations, their newspapers would become lifeless and no one would read them; if they reported news irrespective of injured sensibilities, they were fined out of publication. Journals which had received three warnings were compelled, in 1882, to submit their issues for preliminary censorship at 11 o'clock in the evening of the day of their publication, a requirement which almost prohibited them from functioning. Another provision empowered the ministers of justice and interior, and the Procurator to suspend permanently publication of a newspaper and to prohibit its editors and publishers from pursuing their former careers. By 1884 there were only 776 newspapers in Russia, in comparison with 11,196 in the United States.

Under the inspiration of Pobiedonostzeff books also came under the ban. The Grand Inquisitor forbade publication of such volumes as Strauss's *Life of Jesus*, Renan's *Life of Christ*, and all of Spencer's works. Blinded by his own sense of rectitude, Pobiedonostzeff failed to realize that through repression he was arousing the very forces which he wished to allay.

Still another of the "grand falsehoods of the age" was public education. He was in agreement with A. S. Shishkov, minister of education under Alexander I, who held that "knowledge is useful only when, like salt, it is used and offered in small measures, according to the people's circumstances and their needs. To teach the masses of the peo-

ple, or even a majority of them, to read will bring more harm than good." Pobiedonostzeff also endorsed, and most likely wrote, the manifesto which declared that "the children of coachmen, servants, cooks, and small shopkeepers, and such like should not be encouraged to rise above the spheres into which they were born." He championed a caste system which would confine children to the station of their parents. The lower classes should not aspire to rise. They should be given only as much education as would be necessary to "keep them contented in their humble positions to which it had pleased God to call them." It was enough to teach the children the "difference between right and wrong, just and unjust, true and false," as interpreted by the Procurator. Public education would destroy the "steadfastness, which has hitherto sustained society." Illiteracy, he believed, was the best safeguard against revolutionary ideas. The blessed ignorance of the peasants was not to be disturbed. So a law of 1884 which required children under fifteen to be taught to read and write remained a dead letter.

When the curriculum was reorganized in 1884, he slanted it in such a way as to emphasize obedience and subservience. He also suppressed a large number of secular schools, while simultaneously he provided for the construction of 11,000 parochial schools which he organized as "nurseries of docility." Some 10,000 teachers who refused to be his agents of reaction were imprisoned or exiled to Siberia. This despiser of human nature turned reaction into a system of philosophy, with which to drug the masses into submission. His ideal was to "indoctrinate pigs to die without squealing."

This fanatical autocrat who hated democracy loathed constitutions. His attitude toward a fundamental charter was embodied in a letter of October 12, 1876, to Alexander II: "The day may come when flatterers . . . will try to persuade you that it would suffice to grant Russia a constitution on the western model, and all difficulties would disappear and the government would live in peace. This

is a lie, and God forbid that a Russian shall see the day when this lie will become an accomplished fact." He regarded proponents of constitutions as "halfwits and perverted apes." A constitution was the "basic evil." Russia's "soul can never be reconciled to such a deceitful instrument."

Pobiedonostzeff was as good as his word. In the late "seventies strident and violent agitation demanded a constitution, and this induced Alexander II to choose Loris-Melikov to draft a fundamental law, and early in March 1881, Loris-Melikov presented it to the czar for his signature. Alexander intended to sign and proclaim it, but on March 13, 1881 while taking a sleigh ride he was blown to pieces by the bomb of an assassin. The question of issuing the constitution then rested with the new czar, Alexander III. He consulted a committee, of which Pobiedonostzeff was a member, and he induced the czar not to validate it. The following year Ignatiev, minister of interior, proposed another constitution; again Pobiedonostzeff defeated the project. The hour of Russian liberalism was postponed indefinitely.

With the persistence of a fanatic, the Procurator combated a movement for constitutional reform soon after Nicholas II came to the throne. To the demands of petitioners for a constitution, Pobiedonostzeff wrote the reply and warned them not "to be carried away by senseless dreams." To the end of his life he never relaxed his opposition to a constitution.

Russia, he insisted, had nothing to learn from the West. On the contrary, the West was a social and political aberration to be shunned. Russia should advance by retreating to her past, to her innocent and indigenous institutions. Let the peasants cultivate their mirs, love their church, and revere their czar; then they would experience security, and contentment in this world, and grace and glory in the next.

For those who refused to abide by this formula he streamlined the process of prosecution. The basis of arrest in many cases was the vague "untrustworthiness." If an indivi-

dual was considered "incompatible with public tranquility," he was imprisoned without warrant. Police could detain him in jail from one to ten years. Normally the victim of this summary treatment was not informed of the charges against him, nor of the witnesses who had reported him. For the unfortunate prisoner to request his friends to testify in his behalf merely implicated them in the accusation. It was impossible for the prisoner to demand a hearing, to say nothing of a trial. For him to invoke a writ of habeas corpus was out of the question. This type of prosecution was known as "administrative justice." Its victims could be "arrested, imprisoned and exiled in one smooth operation by a mere order of the minister of justice." Behind the minister of justice, always reactionary, was Pobiedonostzeff. In the period from 1880 to 1886, 120,065 victims were exiled to Siberia.

Pobiedonostzeff's most illustrious victim was Leo Tolstoy, Russia's most distinguished literary celebrity. He accused Tolstoy of scoffing at the most venerable mysteries, of insulting the most sacred ceremonies of the church, and of rejecting God. Tolstoy's admission that he rejected all dogma and failed to appreciate ritual, although he did affirm belief in the teachings of Christ, did not satisfy Pobiedonostzeff. Tolstoy was brought before the Holy Synod, which excommunicated him. When he died, Pobiedonostzeff denied his remains a religious burial.

Without any professional theological training Pobiedonostzeff, nevertheless, directed the agency, the Holy Synod, which administered the religious establishment of Russia. He viewed the church not merely as a spiritual institution, but also as a state agency which should advance the unity of the crown with the people. He, therefore, directed his office in a dual capacity. As an ecclesiastical functionary, he enforced the regulations of the church; and as an advisor of the czar, he counseled in secular matters. But his enthusiasm was not in his spiritual duties, except as these could be perverted to support political objectives. He saw no incongruities in

this, for the czar was not only the ecclesiastical pope, but also the political ruler, and the Procurator should serve the czar as his *alter ego* in the double role. He imposed similar responsibility upon his subordinates from the highest to the lowest of church officials; the archbishop should cooperate with the cabinet member, the bishop with the sheriff, the priest with the policeman, and the monk with the constable, to the glory of God but more to the grandeur of the state. In pursuance of this policy the church became identified with the state, and whatever opprobrium settled upon the latter also lodged upon the former. Pobiedonostzeff was neither a Calvin nor a Knox who wanted the church to dominate the state, but a subservient agent of the czar who prostituted the church in the service of autocracy. Reformer was the last thing that he was even in spiritual matters, and so the church swung from wrack to ruin. Instead of breathing an elevating and ennobling spirit into the lives of the people, the majority of the priests conducted themselves like ecclesiastical robots, mumbled their prayers, droned their sermons, executed their ritual in mechanical monotony. They drugged the people's doubts and sufferings into psychosomatic trances in which their afflictions assumed the form of divine blessings. They surrounded their services with a veil of mystery, a haze of incense and a mumbo-jumbo that never struck intellectual fire nor spiritual inspiration — and they called this religion. Pobiedonostzeff, himself, admitted that many of the priests were illiterate; others accused them of drunkenness, and during the Procurator's regime of twenty-five years, he did little to correct or to improve this situation. Count Witte, ablest of Nicholas II's ministers, confided to his diary that "The greatest danger confronting Russia is the degeneration of the official Orthodox Church, and the extinction of the living religious spirit of the people. . . ." Archbishop Vydensky deplored the church's "Extraordinary glitter . . . Our church has striven for external gorgeousness at the expense of inner virtue, after shadowy splendor at the cost of

spiritual perfection. It has pomp, power and riches, but it has lost its soul." At the close of Pobiedonostzeff's procuratorship, it had become a "museum of liturgic antiquities." The Procurator was not so devoted to Christianity as he was to Churchianity.

Orthodox everyone had to be, for Pobiedonostzeff believed that his church had been established by God Himself. Sectaries were viewed, and treated as heretics. He did not go so far as to burn their bodies to save their souls, but he did demand religious uniformity. The Stundists were denied civil rights; fines and imprisonments were imposed upon them, after which they were banished to the remotest parts of Siberia. Lutheran clergy, on the flimsiest of pretexts, were suspended from their ministrations, construction of their churches was forbidden, and a variety of disabilities was imposed. The Armenians in the Caucasus suffered even worse treatment. Many of them were banished to Siberia, and their religious organizations were suppressed.

Until the advent of Hitler, European Jewry encountered few enemies more hostile or more destructive than Pobiedonostzeff. He disliked the Jews for their Judaism, radicalism, internationalism and their economic aggressiveness. These characteristics tended to upset his ideal of Russian stability and tranquility. His solution of the Jewish problem was to convert one-third of them to orthodoxy, force one-third to emigrate, and to exterminate the other third. In preparation for the execution of his "solution," he wrote the law which revised the status of the zemstvo councils in such a manner as to deprive the Jews of the franchise. He restricted them to

the "pale," and in it they were confined to the ghettos. In cooperation with the minister of interior he narrowed their economic, educational and professional opportunities. He limited their travel, increased their taxes, and tolerated the Black Hundreds to impose their extra-legal "justice" against them. Alexander III in all his naïveté justified this persecution on the basis that "... It was the Jews who crucified the Lord and spilled His precious blood," and Pobiedonostzeff did nothing to dissuade his sovereign from condemning descendants of the perpetration of the crime committed 1900 years before. When the civilized world denounced such savageries, Pobiedonostzeff ridiculed the "absurd agitation roused in London in favor of the Jews." Nominally he was a Christian, but he was not motivated by the spirit of the Sermon on the Mount.

Macaulay maintained that he who wishes to preserve must reform. Had Pobiedonostzeff heeded this wisdom, instead of driving Russia increasingly in the direction of reaction, he could have prepared the way for a moderate constitutional development which would have drawn the fuse of the Bolshevik dynamite, and saved the country from the agonies of a violent revolution. Nor did Pobiedonostzeff appreciate the necessity of being comprehensive in order to be national. He championed so vigorously the interests of an increasingly insignificant group that he alienated everyone else. By 1917 the autocratic regime had grown so impotent that it could not defend itself, and on that account Pobiedonostzeff may justifiably be classified as one of the pioneers of the Russian Revolution.

Reflections on My Visit to Titoland

University of Bridgeport, Bridgeport, Connecticut

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

On thinking over my impressions of our recent three-months' visit to Yugoslavia, I am quite sure that we did not stay long

enough, and that I could even tolerate, should I have a chance to return, some of the unpleasant experiences that the tourist travel-

ling abroad must experience — but which seem so glaringly irritating in the country experimenting in the possible integration of nationalism and dialectical materialism. In other words, Yugoslavia leaves the visitor with some most pleasant as well as most disappointing impressions. Let's dispose of the irritating aspects first.

Tito has been trying to modernize his country and his people as fast as possible. But, unfortunately, the heritage of the Balkan mentality is often glaringly evident, although to a somewhat lesser degree than before World Wars II and I. One still deals with officials who do not mind keeping unfortunate applicants waiting for hours. More specifically, when we tried to cash American dollars in the National Bank in Belgrade, it took more than two hours to accomplish this simple transaction—and this was achieved after bitter arguments with the officials who separate themselves from the customers by slamming down the window of their cubby holes and contemplating passing world problems by getting lost in chain-smoking. Again, we thought we had had the reservation and all arrangements taken care of by PUTNIK, the official government tourist organization. We stayed in eight cities, and with only one exception we had to argue over the accommodations which had been paid for, but were not available, over the interpretation of such items as whether the "bath-room," means a room with a bath available, at certain hours, on another floor, or whether one is allowed one or two oranges at the prepaid lunch. And then it appeared that many of the friends, whom we had known from the Yugoslav Embassy and Consulates and were now back in their native country, were absent for days at a time, taking some mysterious trips, or were available only (according to their underlings) on certain undefined hours and days during the working week; and when a holiday was scheduled, for instance, on a Thursday, the officialdom had a tendency to evaporate from circulation between Tuesday evening and the following Monday afternoon.

Let us now look at the bright side of the experiences. Yugoslavia is one of the most exciting and quaint countries to visit, for the Balkan and nationalistic heritage makes it one of the few countries in the world where the peasants still wear their native costumes and live according to the customs sanctioned by centuries of tribal experiences. It is also one of the most beautiful lands in the world, and the Adriatic coast (especially the area around the ancient city of Ragusa—Dubrovnik) surpasses everything that California, Florida, or the countryside around Princess Grace's domain can offer. And above all, when one eludes the officials in the Ministries, the Yugoslav "common" people are kind, hospitable, and full of admiration for everything American. To go, for instance, to a peasant market on Wednesday in Split is a joyful experience, rich for the eye in offering the visitor a conglomeration of beautifully embroidered costumes, worn by peasants who not only willingly pose for pictures but also offer, in appreciation of this honor extended to them, some of their meager goods—an apple, a chunk of cheese—to the astounded visiting photographer.

Most impressive are the eagerness and hospitality extended by teachers in rural districts to a visitor. Once we had succeeded in having the Councils for Education, Science and Culture (former Ministries of Education) of the several Republics arrange for visits to various schools, the trips provided most exciting and profitable experiences. The nation's policy definitely favors education on all levels and the present generation of teachers is obviously an enthusiastic class which serves with devotion the cause of Tito's brand of communism. A cheerful but well enforced discipline permeates the class procedures. The children in poor districts are systematically checked by medical authorities and provided with free meals.

The same enthusiastic comment can be applied to the children's nurseries, which take in children from 3 to 7 years of age, and where, if their parents are employed, they spend 8 to 10 hours a day. They are divided

into several groups according to their age; as a rule each group has its own nurse. Interesting also are the three children's playgrounds, founded within the blocks of different city streets; they are the centres for the play and entertainment of children (Pioneer cities and children's summer resorts in different parts of Yugoslavia have the same purpose).

On the material side, there are wide divergencies between various schools, due to the heritage of the war and the wealth of various provinces. For instance, there is quite a difference between the developments in education in Slovenia and in Bosnia-Herzegovina. But everywhere there are evidences of the definite efforts to build and improve the educational facilities, and to realize for all Yugoslavs the compulsory 8-year schooling; in fact, the number of schools and pupils has increased most in Macedonia and Bosnia-Herzegovina which were comparatively more backward in regard to education.

A few comments about the Universities. Having been invited to lecture for the University of Ljubljana, I enjoyed the traditional ceremonial approach I had to go through: first, I was instructed to make an appointment with the Rector and then with the Dean; a few hours later, the Dean repaid my visit. The lecture was very formally conducted, with all the dignitaries in attendance. But several lengthy talks with some of the professors revealed interesting facts about Yugoslavia's universities' problems.

Higher institutions of learning here have undergone a tremendous expansion. While before World War II, Yugoslavia had only 3 universities, today there are 83 faculties and academies in 5 University centers (Belgrade, Zagreb, Ljubljana, Skopje, and Sarajevo). This means that 54 new faculties were opened within 9 years after the war. In 1952-1953 there were 54,775 university students (39,335 at the University of Belgrade alone). More than 30,000 students were scholarship-holders. In addition, Yugoslavia has quite a range of institutions classified in the category of "higher education;" some offer 2-

year courses (the Higher Pedagogical School, School of Foreign Commerce, School of Theology, etc.); others offer courses lasting from 4 to 6 years (The School of Physical Training, the Academy of Music, the Higher Institutions for Medicine and Technology), etc.

But this very rapid development has created numerous problems. Complaints are frequently heard that the older generation of professors still dominate this field, although I have met a number of "very young" Professors and Deans. A lot of criticism is heard about the need to attune the curriculum of certain faculties to the country's serious economic needs, and all faculties are planning to decrease the number of required theoretical and practical courses to a maximum of 36 hours a week. The Universities have also their troubles with their "extraordinary" (part-time) students, who are employed by civil service, and who started study before or during first two years of World War II, interrupted their education to join the Partisans and were unable to graduate. The government tried to find a chance for them to continue their studies by granting them a special status in the universities, but many have used dilatory tactics when confronted with the necessity of giving up their privileges when their studies are completed. But probably the main problem pertains to the placement of university graduates in "provinces" and small localities. The word "province" carries the implications of "barbarism," "neglect," "backwardness," and "isolationism." In spite of the enthusiasm of the younger generation to acquire higher education, it is also addicted to the visits to the "coffee-house" in the major cities. There are many graduates and potential graduates who take the attitude that only peasants and fools work in the provinces and that university education should prevent a graduate from suffering the hardships of rural life. Furthermore, Yugoslavia still suffers from the remnants of the traditional Balkan ideology that a university graduate is not only qualified to get a state appointment but is entitled to it. Many able graduates, as a result, take appointments as clerks and work in jobs

which require none of the skills that they had spent years to master.

All in all, Yugoslavia's educational system is in a state of transition. Since we have not enough space to survey some of its novel educational experiments (such as the role played by People's Universities, or the recent reorganization of the entire educational

structure in favor of decentralized administration), we may safely state that, in spite of all the inconveniences one may encounter while visiting Yugoslavia, a carefully planned observation of the changes and experiments in education in that country is richly awarding in terms of what "Tito-ism" has been able to accomplish.

Ideas and the Educational Process

SAMUEL M. LEVIN

Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

The shortcomings of American educational effort have, in an amazingly short period of time, become the subject of an upsurge of popular interest. Top business men, scientists, university professors, journalists, and political leaders have awakened to the existence of a crisis and have joined in the verbal chorus. A critical attitude toward the entire educational system has, indeed, become an actuality in the United States. Not untypical is the statement of Crawford H. Greenewalt, President of the giant Du Pont Company, in an address of December, 1957: "We need to improve the standards of the entire educational system, from kindergarten upward, and most particularly, in the secondary schools."¹ Professor Julius A. Stratton, Vice-President and Provost of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has asserted: "In this country we tend to perpetuate in the University the attitudes and character of the secondary school. . . . By the prolongation and intensification of secondary school experience into the undergraduate years of college we weaken or destroy intellectual initiative . . . we fail to keep pace with the maturing mind of the student."² Lower standards, in other words, are persistently widening their domain, reflecting our pre-

occupation with the goal of mass education and quantity production, even at the cost of neglecting our responsibility to the scholastically superior elements of the population.

Other criticisms call attention to an overzealous regard to practical considerations and to vocational ends in our educational system; to the employment of scores of thousands of teachers with substandard preparation; to a disturbing classroom shortage and an accompanying lack of qualified teaching personnel at the elementary, secondary, and college levels. The impairment caused by this conjuncture of unfavorable developments is worsened by the fact that a goodly number of students are without a knowledge of satisfactory study methods. A turning away from courses that call for intensive application and the self-discipline of systematized thought is shown by the slighting of such important fields as mathematics and the sciences. President Eisenhower's reaction to the problem is indicated in his message to Congress of January 27, 1958, which highlights the issue of the quality and scope of our educational system from the angle of "the national security interest." It is on this ground that he justified the federal government playing an emergency role.

If the new awareness has been spurred by the brilliant success of Soviet scientists in launching their intercontinental ballistic missiles and earth satellites, the failings of our educational system, insofar as they reflect attitudes stemming from an anti-intellectual bias, have been foreshadowed by American critics for many years. It was in *Walden* that Thoreau remarked: ". . . our reading, our conversation and thinking, are all on a very low level, worthy only of pygmies and manikins," and pointed to the "illiterateness of him who has learned to read only what is for children and feeble intellects."³ In the second decade of the twentieth century, a similar strain of thought appeared in Van Wyck Brooks' *America's Coming of Age*. "To be a prophet in America," he then wrote, "it is not enough to be totally uninformed; one must also have a bland smile."⁴ And not to be forgotten is the scathing chapter in James Truslow Adams' *The Tempo of Modern Life* (published in 1931) entitled "Pollyanna, Our Patron Goddess," wherein the well-known historian and essayist declared: "cultivation of emotion in the child instead of the power of critical thought . . . is, I believe, a source of the greatest possible danger to us in the modern world." And further: "I would have done with the whole pedagogical philosophy of the easy and the agreeable, the smattering of the all-inclusive, the creation of the ignorantly omniscient." One is reminded of Housman's lines:

Empty heads and tongues a-talking
Make the rough road easy walking,
And the feather pate of folly
Bears the falling sky.

II

Contrasting with this stultifying complacency, the kind of mood that engendered and popularized the egghead gibes of recent years, is the oft-repeated warning, stressed by men, distinguished by their leadership and achievement, that there can be no significant education without the discipline of mind. In a broad view this bespeaks the dominating role of mind in human experience. And in-

sofar as the interests of democracy are concerned, it is, in the words of Reginald Lennard, not only the education of reason, "the capacity which of all things most obviously distinguishes men from brutes," but also "the education which develops a man's capacity for understanding other men's point of view."⁵

It is the getting of ideas that is important in the case of man. "Indeed, the world is ruled by little else," wrote the eminent economist John Maynard Keynes (with reference to the ideas of economists and political philosophers) in the concluding paragraph of his famous book *The General Theory of Employment, Interest, and Money*. Justice William O. Douglas has recently highlighted the same thought. Ideas, he said, are powerful, "the most powerful things in the world today."⁶ Many years earlier, the Viscount Haldane, addressing the students of the University of Wales on how they might best equip themselves for striving "to develop the soul of the people to whom they belonged," answered: "by getting ideas, ideas which, as has been said, have hands and feet, ideas which not only transform that on which they are brought to bear, but in doing so expand themselves and their meaning."⁷

These considerations should not blind us to the fact that the United States cannot become a slavish follower or imitator of Russian educational practices. The success of the Soviet Union, in devising a system that has scored a remarkable record in terms of rigorous intellectual discipline, and the scientific and mathematical proficiency of its mass of secondary school students, does not warrant the conclusion that the American school system should be fashioned in the same image. It is not difficult for a hard-bitten dictatorship, like the one prevailing in Russia, to direct and control education for predetermined ends, even in the manner that it directs and controls the economy of the country. Indeed, it is an avowed purpose of the government to treat education as a factor, functionally fitted into a master plan, one that is cognizant of the inestimable advantage to the

nation of a great reserve of competent technicians and trained minds.

This kind of an approach is impossible in this country with its tradition of venture, private rights, and the individual's freedom to choose his way of life. It is not unnatural, therefore, that the American environment should foster a variegated pattern of educational endeavor. Moreover, such aims as character training, the search for truth and wisdom, transmitting a nation's cultural heritage, the harmonious development of the individual, and preparation for civic responsibilities, must continue to stand out as worthy of our attention. We do not wish to tread the narrow Russian path, for our concept of ends differs radically from those glorified by the communist political and military leaders.

Perhaps we are beginning to appreciate, in the light of post-war political events and challenges and the growing complexity of contemporary patterns of societal organization and administration, that the very ability of a people to function efficiently pivots on mind. In a period characterized by a breakthrough into the realm of nuclear energy, by the undreamed of proposals of space scientists, and astounding technological innovations, the type of amiable, piddling, non-chalance that shies away from the exercise of mind is a precarious choice. These achievements of our society put a premium on trained intellect, on knowledge, on scientific insight, and creativeness. Indeed, a new crystallization of viewpoint, reflecting the impact of the aforementioned technical and educational factors and signifying a more far-sighted appreciation of our needs, is presently discernible in this country.

From the standpoint of educational standards, this situation necessarily calls for a due emphasis on the training of mind and assimilation of ideas, for it is the helpful ideas that are wanted at every turn, whether one is concerned with planning production schedules, meeting the demands of a labor union, combating the forces of recession, or negotiating with foreign diplomats. Ideas, it must be remembered do not float in the air. They

germinate and effloresce in an individual's mind. In point of fact, the whole immense aggregate of life below man, in all the fullness of its variability, has not produced a single communicable idea.

Ideas grow; they struggle for survival against competing ideas; they enter into union with other viewpoints; they generate new thought. They are subject to unremitting change. They often decay and disappear. They may be irrational, deceptive, dangerous, and perverse. Approved ideas are often ensconced in institutions and become vital influences determining the legal, political, economic, and technical conditions of our existence.

The right kind of educational approach, therefore, signifies an emphasis on content rather than on that which is trifling, colorful, or entertaining. It means "greater stress on the more rigorous teaching of intellectual skills," as recently put by Dr. James R. Killiam, Chairman of the President's Science Advisory Committee. It means that we must do away with such criticism as that offered by Howard Mumford Jones when he wrote with respect to undergraduates: "Today we do not cut the leading strings, we merely lengthen them." It shuns the perversion of education, suggested by the money-inspired, money splurging quiz programs, which, in the main, spotlight the ability of contestants to memorize and rehash unrelated bits of knowledge. We may well remind ourselves that Job more than two thousand years ago uttered the memorable and impassioned warning that wisdom "cannot be gotten for gold." (See Chapter 28.)

This kind of an educational approach calls for open-minded delving into complex data, whether they pertain to history, economics, physics, engineering, or mathematics. It strives, among other things, to achieve the aim of disciplined, critical thought, for our society is helpless without recourse to the unflinching effort of mind and without the willingness of our people to set store by intelligence. Criticism, Adlai Stevenson has said, "is an essential principle of social develop-

ment." It is "not only an instrument of free society. It is its symbol and hallmark as well."⁸

The magnitude of the educational problem confronting the people of this country forebodes the realization of any optimistic hope of a quick, made-to-order, solution. The circumstances do not lend themselves to this easy-going kind of treatment. Indeed, it may well be argued that viewing the problem through the lens of national security will end in frustration, because it will obscure the fundamental issue of a lasting reorganization and redirection of the educational system in furtherance of better standards and for the attainment of the best hopes of a democratic society.

Such reorganization becomes even more imperative in view of the many ways in which media for mass communication are currently primed to manipulate or indoctrinate the public mind, media which include the new tactics for persuasion and for inducing uniform mass responses. The new methods draw on the resources of psycho-analysis, sociology, and anthropology. "Somber examples of the new persuaders in action are appearing not only in merchandising but in politics and industrial relations," Vance Packard warns.⁹ And the shocking possibilities of subliminal advertising—the technique of flashing brief messages on a screen so swiftly that the audience is not conscious of seeing them—has induced Congressman William A. Dawson of Utah to declare that it "has frightening aspects, and would be made to order for the establishment and maintenance of totalitarian government if put to political purposes."

III

Insofar as pedagogy is concerned, it rests with the teacher to discern the pertinence of ideas to the subject matter under consideration, to create an awareness of the importance of ideas in the educational realm, and to make them the center of attention in the classroom. In respect to economics, this kind of methodology would call for emphasis on the following:

1. Factual knowledge. Though often distorted, misused, or corrupted, pertinent knowledge is as needful to the student as raw material to the craftsman. Ideas cannot be created out of emptiness.
2. Classifications. These apply to every sector of the economic field—to types of capital, to income, price, the monetary system, or wage theory. They help, in economic as in other areas of study, to organize and systematize data of an interrelated character and to direct intellectual energy more economically and more fruitfully to desired ends.
3. The spotlighting of significant ideas; e.g., those relating to allocation of resources, economic rights, competition, unionism, government policies, management, etc. They are illustrative of the ripening of thought in a given field. They register the results of the activity of creative minds. They are also conducive to a discriminating sensitiveness in the handling of data, so that one learns to distinguish between the real and the counterfeit.
4. Relationships; i.e., the interweaving of concepts, axioms, demonstrations, and events, into a meaningful fabric. It is by this kind of process that knowledge is synthesized. Without it systematic reasoning is impossible.
5. Singling out areas of controversy. It does not take long to discover that there is scarcely a subject on the economic stage immune to challenge, insofar as the facts of its genesis, role, and implications are concerned. Thus economic study is replete with examples of controversy relating to points of theory, practical applications, and the relevance of fresh viewpoints to particular divisions of the field.
6. Change, characteristic of a dynamic culture, affects economic functions, growth, patterns of organization, industrial relations, government policies, etc. A number of questions come to mind. Is the change direct, conscious, and planned, or

indirect and automatic? Is it of a peaceful character or attended by violence or revolution? Is it slow or rapid, individualistic or brought into being by group action or by government? Is it progressive or retrogressive?

7. Purpose. On this theme, we may appropriately recall the words of Julian Huxley: "And by means of his conscious purpose and set of values, he (man) has the power of substituting new and higher standards for change than those of mere survival and adaptation to immediate circumstances."¹⁰
8. Causes and effects. The charting of causes and the underscoring of effects may be far from simple, since both are generally characterized by multiplicity. To cite one example: many are the causes of the coming of the motor vehicle and countless are the effects.
9. Control, pivoting on ideas pertaining to desired adjustments or experimental techniques and policies. "In economics as in other sciences," wrote Wesley C. Mitchell, "we desire knowledge mainly as an instrument of control. Control means the alluring possibility of shaping the evolution of economic life to fit the developing purposes of our race."¹¹
10. Principles, relating to national income, standard of living, minimum wage, full employment, etc. They are the torchlights that help one to find his way through the shadowy maze constituting the economic field. The principles, of course, do not imply finality, since there is always the possibility of their being modified, supplemented, or discarded.

A subject like problems of labor, to take another example, readily lends itself to this kind of treatment. Important issues, like wages, hours, child labor, occupational hazards, improved standards, and collective bargaining may, in a democratic society be looked upon as rallying grounds for spokesmen of diverse interest-groups, e.g., business executives, trade unionists, reformers, political leaders, economists, and government

administrators. The issues invariably become focal points of controversy. Thus, with regard to the working week or day, should the industries of the country be subjected to new hour reductions? If so, why? How much? Will the whittling down process in a given case affect costs, prices, and markets? Is it a suitable means of dealing with unemployment? Does it call for new legislation and the imposition of new standards? Naturally, there are differences of opinion on these issues, as there are in motivation and purpose. It is significant, however, that an enviable opportunity is given to note the outcropping of new and important ideas and to probe into their implications.

It is the writer's experience that many students who conscientiously give their attention to textbook material or to supplementary assigned readings, in a given sector, show up in the classroom innocent of any notion that they are dealing with consequential ideas, or that it is incumbent upon them to develop an awareness of the emergence of a definable body of thought regarding the subject under consideration. Some take more readily to simple, factual, and unfocused data. Yet it is well known that the cumulation of facts without a concomitant effort to note the relationships between them, leading to some signification in terms of a wider understanding, is of slight worth.

The emphasis on ideas, however, is the desideratum of a methodology concerned with critical thought and intelligence. It does not represent an effort to flaunt the claims of a narrow, rationalistic, educational philosophy as against other vital motivations or aims. Its principal vindication is the desire to raise levels of thought, understanding, and creativeness, in a realm where they are as needful as air is to the living organism.

¹ Crawford H. Greenewalt, Address: "The Fickle Fashions of Science," before Society of the Sigma Xi and Scientific Research Society of America at the Annual Meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, December 27, 1957.

² Julius A. Stratton, Address: "Science and the Educated Man," in *Physics Today*, April 1956, p. 19.

³ See Chapter on Reading.

⁴ Van Wyck Brooks, *America's Coming of Age*, New York, 1915, p. 148.

* Reginald Lennard, *Democracy, The Threatened Foundations*, Cambridge University Press, 1941, pp. 68-69.

* William O. Douglas, "The Power of Righteousness," *New Republic*, April 28, 1952.

* The Viscount Haldane, Address: "The Soul of a People," in *Twentieth Century Essays and Addresses*, edited by W. A. J. Archbold, London, 1927, p. 162.

* *Harper's Magazine*, February, 1956, pp. 32,34.

* Vance Packard, *The Hidden Persuaders*, New York, 1957, p. 5.

¹⁰ Julian Huxley *Man Stands Alone*, 2nd ed., London, 1940, p. 32.

¹¹ Wesley C. Mitchell, "The Prospects of Economics," in *The Trend of Economics*, edited by Rexford G. Tugwell, New York, 1924, p. 25.

A Definition and Framework For Geography

HERBERT J. VENT
University of Alabama

ROBERT B. MONIER
Capt. USAF, Air University

There are many opinions among geographers concerning what constitutes the field of geography. Some limit the field to human ecology, while others believe it encompasses bits of learning from all the diverse social and physical sciences insofar as they help to explain man's adjustment to his environment. Among laymen, geography is thought to be primarily concerned with names and locations of cities, states, rivers, mountains, and other physical and cultural features. Place geography is actually at the most, only a small phase of geography; nevertheless, it is one upon which one must constantly enlarge for better understanding of environmental relationships.

A definition of geography as the determination and interpretation of areal interrelationship is quite in line with that acceptable to most professional geographers. For the purpose of establishing the areal interrelationships, geography is divided into two classifications of phenomena — human and physical. There are two methods by which geography may investigate the human and physical landscapes: area studies and systematic studies.

The study of an area is the integration of the distributed factors into the picture as a whole. There is a successive pattern of order

from the smallest to the largest, and each expansion adds significant insights until, theoretically, the mosaic of the earth becomes meaningful.

A systematic study deals with the distribution and interrelationships of a specific element. It concentrates on producing the generic concepts and principles which aid in the compilation of the picture as a whole. Since all factors are interrelated and dynamic, it often becomes necessary to utilize the findings of other disciplines.

In both the area and systematic approaches human and physical landscapes are studied. These may be analyzed independently or they may be synthesized. No matter how investigated, it is necessary to examine the distributions, patterns, and activities of all phenomena, and then to subdivide the area under study into coherent geographic units. With this done, geography seeks to delineate and classify the interrelationships and establish principles with which to extrapolate and predict.

THE PHYSICAL LANDSCAPE

Much of what man does in utilizing the earth's resources can be explained in terms of the limits set by nature. In the advanced areas of the world the geographic factor is less of a determinant of man's activities, but

it nevertheless continues to set limitations upon his endeavors. The elements of the natural landscape impinging importantly upon the human factor are: (1) weather and climate; (2) landforms; (3) rocks and minerals; (4) soils; (5) native flora and fauna; and (6) water resources.

Weather and Climate. Climate is probably the most important single factor of the natural environment which determines where man will live, where he will engage in agriculture, and where he will build cities. Griffith Taylor, who has done vast research for determining the most important factors relevant to population-supporting capacity of lands, names four factors having a bearing on the capacity: temperature, precipitation, elevation, and fuel supplies. The first three are elements of climate.

Keeping weather and climate records is useful to man because approaches of critical temperatures and storms can be predicted. Man is thus enabled to protect himself against some of the devastating effects of the adverse phases of weather and climate. Also, man decides upon the basis of his knowledge of the climate what types of crops can be grown, when they can be planted, and when they should be harvested. Many of his routine activities are dictated by his familiarity with long-term atmospheric conditions.

Landforms. The geographer is concerned with landforms insofar as they help set the stage on which economic, political, and social activities take place. Intricacies of vulcanism, diastrophism, and metamorphism are the sets of physical agencies that modify the surface appearance of the earth from underneath the surface. Geologists and physiographers are trained to interpret those phenomena. Insofar as these subterranean forces are concerned, geographers' interests are largely confined to concern for those manifestations of these phenomena which affect man's adjustment to the physical landscape.

Rocks and Minerals. It is most difficult for a nation to be a leading power without minerals or easy access to them. They are needed for rails, ships, airplanes, many pro-

ducers' goods, weapons, automobiles, communications equipment, and hydro-electric power developments. No single nation has a monopoly on the mineral supply, but some are better endowed with minerals than others.

There are certain peculiarities about minerals requiring consideration and insight in geographic analysis and interpretation. Their discovery is highly unpredictable in most cases, all mineral deposits are exhaustible, and most minerals reduce to scrap which can be reprocessed. Also, minerals seemingly are gregarious and are greatly concentrated as to occurrence over the surface of the earth.

There are certain very definite man-physical environmental interrelationships involved in exploiting minerals. Mining interests want to know the purity of the ore, the ease of building roads surmounting physical barriers, the extent of the deposit, the kind of vegetation covering the area, and the type of climate — tropical or polar, for example. All of these factors may determine whether or not a deposit of minerals can be worked.

Soils. Few factors of the natural landscape are as important as soils in determining land use because soils provide nourishment for the plants which are directly or indirectly the source of man's food.

Soils are of many types and have a great amount of variation in productivity. The geographer must determine the facts relevant to soil diversity and interpret the significance of these sundry variations as they affect earth-man interrelationships.

Native Flora and Fauna. The earth has three major types of natural vegetation. They are the forests, the grasslands, and the areas of desert shrubs. Each of these is vastly different from the others. Even when man has tried to equate them, they still remain dissimilar; for example, man may clear the forest and give it the appearance of a prairie. Nonetheless, he still has not changed the amount of rainfall, length of growing season, and soil types. Thus, the original environment dictates to a great extent the uses to which any area can be put. Man may irrigate

the deserts, but even so, some of their limitations linger on. There is still the thin, pebbly soil, the many devastatingly hot and clear days, the cold nights with danger of frosts, and the likelihood of alkalines rising to the surface to make the soils unfit for agriculture.

Man is in constant conflict with other faunal forms. His superior intelligence has allowed him to attain a dominant position; nevertheless, he cannot relax his vigilance even for a moment. He must constantly wage war against diseases in order to exploit the tropics successfully; he must fight locusts and grasshoppers to utilize the dry lands; he must cope with the tsetse fly to exploit the savannas; and he must protect himself against the mosquito, especially in the higher latitudes.

Water Resources. Surface waters are present in lakes, rivers, canals, reservoirs, creeks, swamps, and other forms. These waters are important to man for drinking water, power, navigation, irrigation, industry, and for disposing of wastes. Inland waters may even have some climatic influences over limited areas. There are adverse factors associated with surface waters such as periodic floods with their resultant damage. Also, the stagnant waters may harbor diseases. Travel routes, too, may be made circuitous because of the presence of water bodies near the surface.

THE HUMAN LANDSCAPE

Features resulting from man's use of the physical landscape vastly alter the surface appearance of the earth. These features are the second major consideration in geographic evaluation. The human landscape is not as easily classified as the physical landscape, for it is subject to no hard and fast system of classification, for as yet, no set of universally-recognized laws exists to explain social phenomena. Minds of men develop the cultural environment, and they are subject to many whims, caprices and fancies, as well as to ordered thinking and planning. For these reasons, the categories of the human landscape must be presented in a flexible system.

The cultural elements rarely provide world patterns. There is regional individuality and diversity; consequently, particular regions must be dealt with cautiously. This must be so unless geographers devise an infallible system for classifying the human landscape, and that prospect seems unlikely.

In the interim, the following features are described as cultural elements important to geographic evaluation: (1) population; (2) material-cultural features; (3) the producing economy; and (4) transportation.

Population. Although man occupies only an insignificant portion of the earth's surface, population phenomena should be among the most important concerns to the geographer. He should be aware of distributional factors, density, numbers, and sequent occupations — and how these factors are related to eccentricities of the physical landscape.

The geographer must also be cognizant of the differences and similarities among densely populated areas. In many cases the interrelationships between population concentrations and aspects of the physical environment are complex. What may be an important physical condition at one location may become relegated to a secondary or tertiary consideration at another. Sequent occupation of the land may be a manifestation of differing cultural attributes in combination with similar physical conditions. Always the geographer must be alert to delineate the major factors contributing to the changing human landscape, remembering at all times that what has once been a major factor may not now be so important.

Material-Cultural Features. Settlements have often been haphazard in their growth and development. Sometimes they have grown to become urban agglomerations; in other cases they have remained villages and towns. Regional characteristics include early development along winding country roads with subsequent narrow, winding streets becoming a single element of identification. In other cases, growth was begun around a square, as in New England. The early walled

cities of medieval Europe have established a pattern easily distinguishable. The oriental regions with dense population characteristics have developed unique and special settlement patterns. Concentration of numbers in small areas, such as metropolitan New York, has given rise to skyscrapers and special structural forms.

Structure types present no world-wide patterns, but there are distinguishing features from region to region. Residential structures are differentiated on the basis of size, shape, color, materials of construction, and spacing. Generally, the construction materials are those at hand — thus, in forested areas, wood houses are common; in prairies, sod may be used; and in jungles, thatched houses will be found. Economically favored areas will have large spacious houses with diversified shapes.

Industrial and commercial structures also present interesting heterogeneity in types. The specific type of industry determines the size, shape, construction materials, and design of its industrial plants. Latitudinal position combined with climatic conditions also bear heavily on structural designs. Nevertheless, within a specific type of industry or occupation, there are also homogeneous characteristics which assist a geographer in his endeavors. Size of plant, basic layout, transportation facets, etc., remain quite uniform regardless of place.

The Producing Economy. The occupations of man are many and diversified. Each occupation has peculiar demands to place upon the physical and human landscapes. In manufacturing, raw materials, markets, resources, fuels, and many other factors assist in the determination of the type of goods produced.

Agricultural enterprises alter the surface of the earth with their peculiar mosaics. The terraced agriculture of the Far East, the great grain producing prairies, the forest clearings for milpa agriculture, the creation of artificial lakes and reservoirs and irrigation systems, plus many other ingredients, must be skillfully blended together in order that the producing manifestations of geography may become meaningful.

Transportation. The transportation media are an extremely important aspect of the human landscape. Their patterns of distribution are largely dependent upon natural features. The placement of settlements and industry is invariably tied very closely to these routes. Man's efforts to govern large areas have been dependent upon his transportation facilities; physical barriers have often precluded effective control of frontiers. Diffusion of cultural traits and expansion of productive capacity are also closely related to transportation and its accompaniments. The emergence of new modes of movement has largely affected the rural-urban settlement patterns in the United States. For example, the latest trend is the urban development occasioned by the almost universal use of the automobile. The water transportation systems of Europe have had a direct bearing upon the economic growth of that continent. Electrical rail systems have enabled some coal-deficient countries to expand their production efforts. The age of technology has drastically changed man's endeavors and cultural patterns, and has opened new vistas of possibilities in hitherto impassable or unapproachable regions of the world.

SUMMARY:

Some of the physical and human elements associated with geographic studies have been presented. All of them together provide an omnipresent and ever-fluctuating landscape to serve the habitat of man. Man has done much to manipulate the elements of this environment. However, he is still limited as to how far he can go. Once he ventures too far, the forces of nature still seem to overwhelm him, in spite of all his scientific advances. It is through the study of geography that one acquires an understanding and appreciation of these physical and social forces which limit to some extent man's activities and prescribe to a considerable extent what paths of endeavor one must follow. Geography should provide studies of the physical and human landscapes to develop the interrelationships necessary for predicting man's future actions.

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

*Abraham Lincoln High School,
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania*

IDEALIZED TEACHER IMAGES

Every person creates for himself one or more idealized images — of himself as he is, of the kind of person he would like to be, of parenthood, of the kind of person he would want to marry, and of the occupation closest to his dreams. The younger a person is the wider the gap between the idealized image and reality. The mature person learns to modify his idealized images over the years.

Young people entering into the teaching profession naturally have pre-conceived images of what the ideal teacher should be. How they come by them is, in large measure, the result of the experiences they had as children with teachers, of what they are taught in teacher training institutions, and of what they read in professional books. Every beginning teacher, therefore, has certain self-expectations as a teacher, which grow out of the idealized creations he has fashioned for himself.

Dr. I. N. Berlin, psychiatric consultant for the San Francisco Unified School District, makes some very significant observations on "Teacher's Self-Expectations: How Realistic Are They?" Many teachers, the writer discovered, hold themselves to unrealistic expectations which become "a source of dissatisfaction and constant strain in the classroom." It is not unusual for some teachers to feel quite strongly that to be a good teacher they must love their students unflinchingly and be loved by them in return.

"These teachers believe that their administrators expect to see signs of this unfaltering love whenever they step into a classroom. The evidence demanded is a quiet, orderly room. Hence the teachers strive to avoid the slightest disturbance, since even minor breaks in order carry the risk of disapproval.

Other teachers have the idea that the personality of the student is so fragile that firmness, anger, or insistence on study may produce trauma. These teachers make it a cardinal rule to treat students with utmost gentleness."

True and unrealistic as the above type attitude is, there exists also, not mentioned by Dr. Berlin, an opposite type of attitude, which also is evidenced in a need to maintain an orderly and quiet classroom. This is the belief that to be effective, a teacher must be hard, tough, and unyielding.

Dr. Berlin concerns himself with the former type teachers — who feel anxious when they experience hostile emotions. In conferences with teachers and administrators Dr. Berlin flatly states that were he in the place of a teacher facing hostile and aggressive students, he might feel angry and hateful towards them.

"It is essential," Dr. Berlin states, "to help trainees understand and accept the wide ranging emotions they may encounter in themselves in the classroom. Only as teachers accept their feelings and dare to speak of them can they avoid the anxiety that their emotions may erupt into sadistic, revengeful behavior. . . ."

The emphasis is on *understanding* one's emotions and *accepting* them. What the teacher *does* about them is another matter.

"The experienced teacher well knows that eruptions of pent-up emotions can be harmful to the child and disruptive to the teacher-child relationship . . . a distinction must be made between being aware of feelings, hostile or otherwise and acting on them irrationally."

The value of recognizing and accepting one's emotions is in itself therapeutic — (1)

It lessens or eliminates guilty feelings which otherwise might result from such emotions; (2) it prevents repressing them, so that they do not become a source of disturbance and a wear and tear on the nervous system; (3) it prevents the otherwise repressed feelings of hostility from developing "under the guise of kindness and firmness" into "sadistic and retaliating feelings." Dr. Berlin feels that professors at teachers' training institutions have a responsibility to give teacher trainees these insights in order to safeguard their emotional health.

"Forthright, honest, experienced teachers can make a valuable contribution by sharing their feelings and experiences with student teachers."

Dr. Berlin further suggests that during the sessions designed to discuss teaching techniques, following practice teaching experiences, "a way might be opened for student teachers to discuss their emotions, especially emotions that may take hold when a young teacher is confronted by a hostile, provocative, stubbornly negativistic student or by a placidly indifferent one. If student teachers came to feel that their emotions were understood and accepted by their professors, less of the teachers' energy would be expended in repressing turbulent, forbidden emotions and more energy would be available for working with difficult children."

Whether the schools should or should not take on the duties which formerly were the responsibilities of the parents, the fact is that they do. The changing nature of the home, due to the changing nature of our whole social order, has placed the schools in a position where they come face to face with responsibilities that were once the place of the home. Notwithstanding all the emphasis that is today being stressed on intellectual development, as the principal function of the schools, the schools are still expected and held responsible for helping to mold personality. Dr. Berlin devotes considerable space in his article to a discussion of the kinds of home environments that tend to produce emotionally adjusted or disturbed children. The de-

velopment of the former is to be found in homes (1) "where both parents are . . . relatively free of conflict" and where they "are fully aware of their own feelings and can speak of them openly;" (2) where children also are free to express their emotions, whether pleasant or hateful without provoking parents "into emotional withdrawal or hostility."

For teachers, the following paragraph, quoted in full, is extremely significant:

"If the child does not see acceptance demonstrated at home, where can he experience acceptance? Here the teacher can make an invaluable contribution to the child's emotional development. The teacher can demonstrate behavior the child has never known. The teacher may be the first person the child has ever met who can accept a hostile outburst without withdrawing emotionally or without becoming angry or defensive. But before the teacher can accept the child and his hostility, the teacher will have to face his own emotions and do so without feeling helpless before them. The teacher himself will have to know the pleasure that comes from learning, the satisfaction that comes from mastery over self and environment. The task calls for a teacher who is fairly free of pretense about himself."

The administrator's role in helping teachers who have personal problems is to act toward them as he would want the teachers to act towards students. A troubled teacher wants to be able to talk about his problems without feeling threatened. Good administrators "are available to hear teachers' troubles." They make the teacher feel that he is not carrying the burden alone.

As in the case of the teacher in relation to his students, the administrator "should not hide his own feelings from himself." Dr. Berlin also suggests that the administrator should not "suppress his disappointment or even anger with teachers who continue to be helpless." This latter suggestion is subject to some question. As in the case of teachers dealing with children, recognizing and accepting one's feelings is one thing; how they

are expressed is another matter. Emotional eruptions, although cathartic and unavoidable on certain occasions, may also be dangerous. More valuable is Dr. Berlin's statement:

"... he (the administrator) takes care to impart to his staff his certainty about the value of his work and shares with them what he has learned about achieving satisfaction in it. Unconsciously the staff emulates him."

BREAKING THE VICIOUS CIRCLE

In the same issue of *The School Review*, Robert J. Havighurst, University of Chicago, writes about "The Hard-To-Reach Adolescent." The boys and girls in this group generally do "poor or failing work," "are unresponsive or hostile to teachers or other adults who try to be of help; may have an out of school record of theft, traffic violations, and sexual misbehavior." Dr. Havighurst points out that "although the problem is most acute in big cities, it is affecting more and more smaller communities."

The majority of the boys and girls in this group have an I.Q. range between 75 and 90. About 15 per cent of the population fall into this range. According to Dr. Havighurst about half to three quarters of the children in this group do passable work and do not become a problem to the community. About five to ten per cent of the total age group (14-17) constitute the hard-to-reach.

After describing some individual case histories, Dr. Havighurst comes to the conclusion that:

"The plight of these hard-to-reach boys and girls is the result of three failures. The families have failed them. The school has failed them, and society has failed them."

In nearly all the cases studied, the children came from unwholesome families, characterized by fighting and disagreement between the parents or broken by desertion or divorce. Drinking and sexual promiscuity on the part of one or both parents is not infrequent. Having to work long hours outside the home by the mother is another factor. All in all one or both parents "presented a poor model to the children."

"The crucial need is to improve family life.

But the task is exceedingly difficult since it means changing the outlook and behavior of mothers and fathers whose own childhood and youth followed the pattern of the boys and girls described here. Somehow the vicious circle must be broken."

How to break this vicious cycle is one of the great challenges of our age. Talking and writing about it will not do it. Breaking the cycle must start with the children; most parents are too far gone. They would require extensive reeducation and even psychotherapy to be changed, both of which are impractical. But the children can be had in school — even if they are temporarily not reached. What the schools have failed to do (and they are not at fault because the school merely reflects social values and tradition) is to provide the proper counter measures which would correct the unwholesomeness of the poor home environments. As much as the school must train the intellect of young people, so must the schools give attention to training their emotional, moral and spiritual minds. This cannot be done by mere preaching. Specific courses dealing with the problems of human behavior, the emotions, human relationships, psychological needs, acceptable and unacceptable outlets for the emotions, the role of guilt and repression, preparation for marriage, parenthood, and family living, are just as vital to the majority of young people (particularly the potentially hard-to-reach), as subjects in history, government, English, and mathematics. In addition, teachers trained not only to teach subject matter, *important as it is*, should also be trained in dealing with young people and their emotions.

Dr. Havighurst attacks the problem of what the schools should do from another but related angle.

"Schools must find a way of helping these children get as much as possible out of classes. Schools must offer these boys and girls an experience of accomplishment and reward for constructive work. Otherwise, the school has no business keeping these boys and girls in classes at all."

With respect to society's responsibility to do something for the hard-to-reach youth, Dr. Havighurst makes the usual suggestions having to do with things already being done, such as the program of aid to dependent children, and the work of family service agencies and mental health clinics. It is significant, in connection with Aid to Dependent Children, that in Philadelphia, recently, the district attorney suggested that something be done about giving indiscriminate aid to young mothers who have as many as eight illegitimate children. Perhaps some of the continuing programs need to be reexamined and reevaluated. Another suggestion made

by Dr. Havighurst, which has been mentioned from time to time in these pages, is the need to reexamine our child labor laws — "... whether, under present industrial conditions, the laws may not necessarily limit the opportunity of boys and girls fourteen years old and over to get wholesome work experience."

Adequate recreational facilities and programs are essential, but we would also want to see programs that would utilize young people's energies in constructive learning—work situations, as for example in the often suggested Civilian Conservation Corps type of program.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Jr. High School, Mt. Vernon, N. Y.

NEW MATERIALS

Film Strip Guide. New Jam Handy catalogue lists over 700 classroom tested filmstrips. Space Age subjects are featured. New additional elementary science series on simple machines and opera and ballet stories. Free from Jam Handy Organization, 2821 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit, Mich.

Help in Teaching Values. 108-page booklet lists books, films, filmstrips, plays, poems, and recordings available for teaching about values in elementary grades. It also has a master index of character traits and books, films, etc., which stress them. Values Resource Guide is \$1.00 from American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 11 Elm St., Oneonta, New York.

The Story of Canning and Can Making. Twenty pages of information and activities on the canning industry for elementary teachers. Covers the following: primitive methods of food preservation; history of canning; planning a unit on canning and can making; reference and audio-visual materials. Free to teachers from the Home

Economic Section, American Can Company, 100 Park Ave., New York 17, N. Y. *The Shift of World Petroleum Power Away from the U. S.* This study pamphlet by L. M. Fanning discusses America's dwindling domestic oil supplies and the search for foreign sources since 1918. Twenty-one tables give a survey of American oil companies abroad, free world drilling activity, trend in major U. S. oil discoveries in the last 20 years, U. S. net imports and exports. Free from Gulf Oil Corp., P. O. Box 1166, Pittsburgh 30, Pa.

FILMS

Chaucer's England. 30 min. Color, or black and white. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

Depicts the setting of the Canterbury Tales: Canterbury, the pilgrims, the inn, and dramatization of "The Pardoner's Tale."

Not by Chance. 28 min. Black and white. Sale/rent. National Education Association, 1201 16 St., NW., Washington, D. C.

The education of a prospective teacher of high school science is traced from the beginning of her college career, through her

teacher education activities, and into student teaching.

Section 16. 13 min. Black and white. Sale or rent. N.E.A.

The development of education in the U. S. is traced from the early Dame Schools of New England, the colonial schools of Pennsylvania, the one-room schools of the Middle West, and the early mission schools of the Far West.

How Can the U.S. be More Effective? 29 min. Rent. NET Film Service, Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

Discusses UN membership for Red China and the competition between the U. S. and Russia to aid underdeveloped countries.

Three of Our Children. 30 min. Rent. Contemporary Films, Inc., 13 E. 37 St., New York 16, N. Y.

Describes activities in the rehabilitation center for polio in Athens, the leprosy treatment in French Equatorial Africa, a maternity center in the Philippines.

Your World in Crisis: Can the UN Keep the Peace? 29 min. Sale/rent. World Affairs Center, Foreign Policy Association, 47th St. and UN Plaza, New York, N. Y.

Discussion covers UN policies, UN "police" activities, economic aid, and the expression and formation of world opinion in its sessions on such issues as Hungary, and Egypt-Israel crisis.

Report to the American People on Technical Cooperation. 27 min. Sale/rent. Educational Film Library Association, 345 E. 46 St., New York 17, N. Y.

Shows Americans sharing their knowledge, their "know-how" in agriculture, education, health, in India, Libya, Indonesia, Paraguay and Ethiopia.

Workshop for Peace. 29 min. Sale/rent. Contemporary Films.

Describes the UN Headquarters buildings in New York City, and the operations of the various departments which occupy them.

A Pilgrimage of Liberty. 31 min. Color. Sale/rent. United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y.

Depicts American monuments, memorials, national parks, historical landmarks and their significance to the people of the U. S.

The Washington Mosque. 16 min. color. Sale/rent. United World Films, Inc.

Presents the newly-built Mohammedan temple of worship and describes the religious and cultural activities of this Islamic Center in the capital city of the U. S.

The Greatest Treasure. 20 min. black and white. Sale/rent. United World Films, Inc.

Describes the more important activities, services and valuable collections of the Library of Congress.

FILMSTRIPS

The United Nations: First Decade. 58 fr. black and white. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, N. Y. Times, New York 36, N. Y.

Presents the contrasts between the high hopes of 1945 and the realities of the cold war and the atom. Explores man's search for peace and the structure and operation of the U.N., man's last effort.

United Nations Organization. 75 fr. Sale. Filmstrip Division, Life Magazine, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

Based on the news reports and articles published in *Life* this filmstrip describes the development of the UN Charter, its ratifications, the UN buildings in N. Y. C., and the work of the General Assembly, Security Council, Secretariat, and Economic and Social Council.

Our United Nations. 56 fr. Sale. C. C. Rankin Enterprises, P. O. Box 25, Burlingame, Calif.

Describes the functions of the General Assembly, Security Council, Economic and Social Council, Secretariat, and International Court of Justice.

Towards a Better World. 63 fr. Sale. Text-film Dept., McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 36, N. Y.

Shows the growth of the United Nations idea leading to the signing of the Charter, and the achievements over the first ten years of keeping the peace and promoting human rights, and social and economic progress.

Around the World on Less than 75¢. 92 fr. color. Sale. U. S. Committee for the U. N., 816 21 St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

Illustrates how the U. S. contribution is being used by the U. N. and the Specialized Agencies in their efforts to bring about peace.

RECORDINGS

Great American Speeches. Two 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ rpm discs. Sale. Caedmon Publishers, 277 Fifth Ave., New York 16, N. Y.

Social studies teachers will welcome these as fine examples of oratory as well as history. Melvin Douglas as Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, Robert Toombs, and Robert E. Lee; Ed Begley as George Washington, Josiah Quincy, and William Jennings Bryan; Vincent Price as Henry Clay and Charles Sumner; and Carl Sandburg as Lincoln. History students will see that the past does illuminate the present when they note certain similarities.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

The American Bankers Association: Its Past And Present. By Wilbert M. Schneider. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1956. Pp. 275. \$5.00.

In our efforts to condense history to manageable proportions for teaching, we tend to ignore the voluntary, independent associations, the non-governmental groups which determine so much of our national thought and action.

Wilbert M. Schneider and the Public Affairs Press offer us the story of one such organization, the American Bankers Association, which, representing over 98% of the nation's banks, may be said to "represent" the banking profession.

The general reader will do well to skip the first eight chapters, which present a detailed compendium of trivia in the annals of the ABA. Turning to the second half of the book, he will find a fascinating account of the troubled role of an interest group representing an interest frequently on the defensive in our changing society.

The ABA came into existence in 1875, at a time when the banking fraternity did not enjoy a high regard among the general population, and when its own faith and fortunes had been badly shaken by the catastrophe of 1873.

With its fourfold purpose of education,

legislation, public relations, and fraternalism, it has faced a prodigious job of creating public confidence and esteem for a profession that has historically been somewhat suspect. Some of the defensiveness inherent in this situation seeps through in the book. The concluding paragraph begins, "The ABA is in no sense of the word a cabal: its activities are open to the scrutiny of the critic for evaluation."

This unfortunate final tone does not diminish the positive presentation of the ABA as a strong consistent spokesman for financial conservatism, in constant opposition to legislation that would undermine free enterprise. Nor does it detract from the splendid clarification of the varied services performed by ABA, including such items as working for uniform banking practices, offering legal aid to members, sponsoring a retirement plan for bank employees, recommending standard practices for consumer credit, maintaining a 12,000 volume library, watch-dogging federal and state legislation, providing professional training for bankers, and supporting a vast public relations program.

This book creates the impression that the banking profession has been in the unenviable position in recent years of constant obligation to cooperate with a seemingly

hostile government. It clearly suggests that while the banks were assuming much responsibility for the success of such programs as consumer rationing, the sale of Defense Bonds, and GI loans, they were suffering increased competition from federal loan activities. The historic position of the ABA in opposition to such federal measures as Postal Savings, guaranty of deposits, and the use of government funds for farm loans is presented with the Association's reasons for such stands.

The author succeeds admirably in maintaining his neutral position while recounting a history of highly controversial involvement of the ABA in federal financial policy. His partisanship never extends beyond a cautious summary statement such as, "The inflexibility with which the Association has stood for the retention of private enterprise is most commendable."

One weakness is the absence of recent material. It is as if the volume were commissioned for the celebration of the 75th anniversary of the ABA in 1950 and was then six years delayed in publication.

Nevertheless, this volume is important for any complete economics library.

DONALD W. ROBINSON

Carlmont High School
Belmont, California

Democracy Versus Communism. By Kenneth Colegrove. Princeton, N. J.: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1957, Pp. 424. \$3.96.

Produced for The Institute of Fiscal and Political Education, this book is the first full-size high school text the reviewer has seen on the topic of Communism and democracy. It has been authored and edited by competent educators, and several noted scholars read and criticized the original manuscript. As suggested in its introduction, the book is certainly not impartial. As democratic educators, the authors are committed to the American way, and, while they attempt to be factual and to avoid emotionalism, they recognize that their allegiance "shines through."

The book includes a rather full comparison

of the two ideologies and of various aspects of life marking those who live under the two systems. Thus, one chapter is devoted to how free peoples develop their beliefs and ideas, while the next presents Communism's thought control; another chapter contrasts the treatment of minorities in the United States with conditions in the Soviet Union; others compare political and economic practices, and so on.

Up to date, the text is also readable at high school levels, explaining and defining difficult terminology and concepts. Each chapter opens with a series of questions to be answered. Other thought questions are found at chapter endings or at appropriate spots throughout certain chapters. Many illustrations are included, and for the most part these are well integrated with the textual content. Vignettes and real-life anecdotes are also spread throughout the volume, and these, like the illustrations, are generally related to adjacent textual material.

While the discriminating adult reader would like even more detail—for example, on page 406 the reader is told that the Communist Party was outlawed in the United States by Congress in 1954, but two pages later it fails to explain why the Party was allowed to meet at a national convention reported as held in New York City in 1957—this book is probably the most complete, single source now available for secondary school pupils. A very inclusive and helpful bibliography of further references on each of the topics is included as a part of an accompanying teacher's manual.

In some ways the reviewer is happier with the presentation concerning the pitfalls of Communism than he is with certain of the points related to the United States. This may be due to his comparative ignorance of conditions in the Soviet Union; a Russian would probably feel the book errs considerably in the other direction. Nevertheless, I am sure that many Americans would hardly agree that integration in the South is "well under way" (p 343) and just "several" years from completion (p. 131). Actually errors of omission on the American side of this com-

parative ledger are of more concern to the reviewer than the few errors of commission, such as that noted above. One would wish for a much more complete treatment of the story of our handling of the American Indians. Just how late did American Indians come into full citizenship and attain the right to vote? Or, in telling the familiar story of widespread stock ownership in the United States, why not explain practically what this really means in terms of company control? With Sputnik in the headlines one looks in vain for facts which would help the student understand how a slave society as pictured could so excel the free society that is extolled. We need to understand our enemy's strengths and our own weaknesses.

The reviewer realizes the very real difficulty of explaining even in 424 pages the inconsistencies of the American economy in operation, as measured against the theory of free enterprise. The same holds true for explaining the complexities of Soviet statism. He also realizes the very real problem of fully satisfying any reader when dealing with such large and controversial topics as are dealt with in this volume. All in all, the authors have produced a valuable, text-reference which will fill a very real need in many classrooms.

RICHARD E. GROSS

Stanford University
Stanford, California

The Italian in America, A Social Study and History. By Lawrence Frank Pisani. New York: Exposition Press, 1957. Pp. 293. \$3.50.

In recounting the discovery and settlement of the new world historians generally have utilized a conflict theory which plays largely upon the presumed national rivalries and religious controversy of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Consequently, little attention has been given to contributions not implemented by dynastic development or theological rationalization. Thus, under such a species of historical reasoning, individuals (at least those whose exploits were not backed by the dynamics of power of a prominent

state) frequently tend to be disregarded and their contributions lightly assessed—if, indeed, they have been noticed at all.

For example, how many students of American history are familiar with the exploits and achievements of Fra Marco da Nizza, the Tontis—Alfonso, Henri, and Enrico—or Father Eusebio Chino? They were, of course, Italian, and, as Metternich so wickedly observed, Italy was only a geographical expression.

Nevertheless, in *The Italian in America*, Dr. Pisani is only casually concerned with the exploits of these early examples of Italian initiative. Pisani, a professor of sociology at Cedar Crest College, essays an objective role in interpreting to a later generation the general contributions of the Italian and Italian-American in the United States. Chapters deal with the colorful life of the Italian-American community, the impact of church and press on old established mores of the motherland, the literature of Italian-American origin, the Mafia and its octopus-like reputation, the "loyalty" of Italian-Americans, and the superb story of the Italian artist and musician in the American culture.

Dr. Pisani also gives brief biographies of prominent Italo-Americans in business, industry, politics, science, and the arts. This part of the work, frequently becomes the least interesting because of a certain tendency to long lists of otherwise unidentified names and too great a telescoping of individual accomplishment.

Exciting, however, are Chapters 13 and 14 which evaluate American reaction to the newly-arrived immigrant and to the later-day Italian-American, and the issue of the loyalty of the Latins during two world wars and the ascendancy of Benito Mussolini. In this last instance let it be quickly said that many Italians or Italo-Americans were able to identify *il Duce* for the charlatan that he was long prior to the awakening of those other Americans who praised his "making the trains run on time."

Pertinent, too, are the author's observations on "evil things" (p. 180ff). The prec-

edence given in American newspapers to the activities of a few hoods and hooligans has tended to stereotype native thinking and to relegate—in the minds of too many otherwise good Americans—all Italians to a limbo inhabited by the exponents of violence, rage, and racketeering.

Poetic is Pisani's peroration on the achievement of the decent average Italian in America "... as he sits on the clean white porch and gazes out over the land, his inner eye can see much further than his outer ones. It can see his countrymen spread out to all four corners of the United States. It can see them all employed in a wide variety of endeavors, from the vine growers of California and the berry raisers of New Jersey to the New York architect and the Chicago road contractor. It can see the long parade of men in art and music, science and sports, Italians who have won fame in the United States and added to the prestige of all their countrymen here. It can see also, with pride, the fruits of the labor of the old man himself, the tall skyscraper, the highway, the subway tunnel. . . . It has not been what he expected when he first came, but the old man knows that he is perpetuated in the new land through his works and through his seed—and he is content."

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Montana State University
Missoula, Montana

Memoirs of Michael Karolyi. (Translation by Catherine Karolyi.) New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1957. Pp. 392. \$6.50.

All Hungarian leaders of the early 20th century wanted to preserve Hungary as a great state; Michael Karolyi, one of the greatest magnates with a fortune which challenged that of an English duke, took an opposite course. By the time of World War I, he was the advocate of universal suffrage, of national equality, and of the division of the land among the peasants—all treacherous ideas to his class. In 1918, he brought the Habsburg Monarchy to an end, became the first President of independent Hungary, and tried to reform his country on Wilsonian

principles. He failed; this induced Karolyi to move further to the Left, although he remained an anti-communist. He was exiled and in England became good friends with Shaw, Bertrand Russell, the Webbs, the Asquiths and other leading socialists of the day; he lived for a while in Paris, in Czechoslovakia, in Italy, and Yugoslavia, and was invited to tour Mexico as a lecturer. At the end of World War II, he was welcomed home to Hungary by cheering crowds once more, but again had to go in exile. His memoirs are delightful vignettes of the life which has always attracted so many Americans (as Hollywood Graustarkian movies and Broadway operettas have shown). The early chapters present a most interesting picture of how the European aristocracy lived in the days before the fall. The rest is a historic document of the first importance since it deals interestingly with that fantastic transitional era of our times, which has changed Central-Eastern Europe from a monarchical system to a Communist colonial empire.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

An Introduction to the Study of Society. By Blaine E. Mercer. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and Company, c. 1958. Pp. xvi, 640. \$6.50.

This book is offered as a text for a one-semester introductory sociology course. If such a course is conceived of as a series of interesting excursions into various areas of American society, the book may serve the purpose well. It is easy to read—the writing is uncomplicated, the print is large, pictures and charts are profuse and often out-sized; and the student can gain a great deal of miscellaneous information and perhaps some stimulation to further reading. It presents a diversified fare of something from all the social sciences, yet the coverage seems less extensive than that of some of the texts prepared for general social science courses.

If, however, sociology is thought of as a systematic discipline, the book fails to make this clear. The chapters on education, politi-

cal organization, and economic organization — as in many other texts of this type — deal very little with sociology; they simply present certain data and comments from these specialized fields. Again, the chapter on communication ranges over almost everything that could conceivably be brought under the heading — subhuman communication, primitive sign language, origin of language, mass communication, including its functions and its effects, the communicator, the message, and the audience, propaganda and its techniques, education, advertising, public opinion, etc. — none of these integrated into any particular sociological framework. (It is hardly surprising that “the effects of books” must be polished off in exactly seventy-five words.) The chapters on social processes, social status and social class, and groups are, on the other hand, more successful in both coverage and theoretical setting. Teaching aids are limited to a short bibliography and a set of questions for each of the sixteen chapters.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS

ARTICLES

- “What Hope for the Railroads?” *Fortune*, February, 1958.
 “Jet-Age Future-World Airports,” *Newsweek*, December 9, 1957.
 “The President Came Forward and the Sun Burst Through the Clouds.” By Philip Van Doren Stern, *American Heritage*, February 1958. Volume ix, Number 2.

PAMPHLETS

- The LoveJoy-Jones College Scholarship Guide*. Published by Simon and Schuster, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, New York. Price \$1.95.
 “The American Revolution,” by Edmund Morgan of Yale University. Published by Service Center for Teachers of History, 400 H. Street, S. E. Washington 3, D. C. Price 50 cents.
 “Adventures of the Inquiring Mind,” pre-

pared by General Motors Corporation. Copies free upon writing to Public Relations Staff, General Motors, Detroit 2, Michigan.

“*Anatomy of Revolution.*” A condensation of the United Nations Report on the Hungarian Uprising. Price \$1.00. Public Affairs Press, 2162 Florida Avenue, Washington 8, D. C.

New Pamphlets on Current Problems. Published by Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, New York. Price 25 cents each. S1244—“What’s Happening in School Integration?” S1226—“The United Nations — Ten Years of Achievement.” S1227 — “When Congress Investigates.”

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

- Unsettled Children and Their Families*. By D. H. Stott. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. xi, 240, \$6.00.
Old Stone Age: Nature and Art Series. By Stevan Celebouvavie. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. 92, \$10.00.
Building Our America. By Clyde B. Moore, Fred B. Painter, Helen M. Carpenter and Gertrude M. Lewis. New York: Charles Scribner’s Sons, 1958. Pp. xxvi, 467. \$3.28. Revised Edition.
Review of Sociology: Analysis of a Decade. By Joseph B. Gittler. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1957. Pp. xiv, 588. \$10.50.
Geography in the 20th Century. Edited by Griffith Taylor. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. xxix, 674. \$10.00.
Religion, Philosophy and Science. By Burnham P. Beckurth. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. v, 241, \$3.75.
Sweden’s Foreign Policy. By Samuel Abrahamsen. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1957. Pp. viii, 99. \$2.50.
Half the World’s Children. By S. M. Keeny. New York: Associated Press, 1957. Pp. xviii, 254. \$3.50.
The Holy Pretence. By George L. Mosse. Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell Company, 1957. Pp. ix, 159. \$3.00.
An Approach to Christian Education. Edited

- by Rupert E. Davies. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. xi, 159. \$4.75.
- Religion in Action.* By Jerome Davis. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. xxi, 319. \$4.75.
- The Protestant Credo.* Edited by Vergilius Ferm. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. x, 241. \$5.00.
- American Protestantism and Social Issues.* By Robert Moats Miller. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press, 1958. Pp. xxiii, 385. \$6.00.
- Modern Europe in World Perspective: 1914 to the Present.* By Eugene N. Anderson. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1958. Pp. xxviii, 884. \$8.00.
- The Changing Population of the United States.* By Conrad Taeuber and Irene B. Taeuber. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958. Pp. xvi, 355. \$7.75.
- The Meaning in Your Life.* By Samuel Rosenkranz. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. v, 146. \$3.00.
- In Search of Reality.* By Viscount Samuel. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. xii, 224. \$7.50.
- The Story of Human Emotions.* By George M. Lott. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. xviii, 228. \$4.95.
- Growing Up.* By Wendell Yeo. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1958. Pp. xv, 454. \$4.00.
- Egypt and the United Nations.* Prepared for the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. New York: Manhattan Publishing Company, 1958. Pp. vii, 197. \$3.00.
- Cultural Foundations of Industrial Civilization.* By John U. Nef. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1958. Pp. vi, 163. \$4.00.
- Psychology and Personality.* By E. Lakin Phillips and James F. Gibson. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1957. Pp. xvii, 338. \$3.50.
- Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School.* By Ralph C. Preston. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1958. Pp. xiv, 382. \$5.00.
- The Neuroses and Their Treatment.* By Edward Podolsky and others. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. 555. \$10.00.
- Introduction to Political Science.* By Conley H. Dillon, Carl Leiden and Paul D. Stewart. Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Company, 1958. Pp. xv, 298. \$4.85.
- Sir William Johnson Papers.* Volume XII. By Albert B. Corey, Director. Albany, New York: The University of the State of New York, 1957. Pp. 1124. Price to be announced later.
- A Survey of European Civilization. Part I—to 1660.* By Wallace K. Ferguson and Godfrey Bruun. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1958. Pp. xxxvi, 480. \$4.00.
- Government in Modern Society: with Emphasis on American Institutions.* By R. Wallace Brewster. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1958. Pp. xxviii, 619. \$6.95.
- American Government and Politics: National, State and Local.* By Harold Zink, Howard R. Penniman and Guy B. Hathorn. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, 1958. Pp. xxx, 446. \$5.25.
- The Alien and the Immigration Law.* By Edith Lowenstein. New York: Oceana Publications, 1958. Pp. v, 388. \$7.50.
- Labor and the New Deal.* Edited by Milton Derber. Madison, Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1958. Pp. x, 392. \$6.00.
- Pioneering in Industrial Research: The Story of the General Electric Research Laboratory.* By Kendall Birr. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1957. Pp. viii, 204. \$4.50.
- Finding Fossil Man.* By Robin Place. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. xvii, 126. \$7.50.
- Human Relations and Power.* By Albert Mueller-Dehaw. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. xli, 410. \$3.75.
- American National Government.* By Cortez A. M. Erving. New York: American Book Company, 1958. Pp. xxxi, 735. \$7.25.
- Social Living.* By Paul H. Landis. Boston, Massachusetts: Ginn and Company, 1958. Pp. xxxv, 452. \$4.40. Third Edition.

Index

The Social Studies, Volume XLIX

Continuing Historical Outlook

January-December, 1958

AUTHORS

- Aaron, R. and Bartholomew, P. C., Congressional Reapportionment by the Method of Equal Proportions, 51.
- Albjerg, Victor L., Konstantin Pobiedonostzeff 1827-1905, 249.
- Allen, D. W. and Gross, R. E., Upside Down but Not Backwards: Beginning U. S. History with a Unit on Current Events, 180.
- Bartholomew, P. C. and Aaron, R., Congressional Reapportionment by the Method of Equal Proportions, 51.
- Bauer, Richard H., Some Basic Keys to Soviet Foreign Policy, 163.
- Beale, Elizabeth, Meet Our Congressmen, 100.
- Boodish, Hyman M., The Teachers' Page, 29, 65, 109, 146, 187, 231, 267.
- Brinkman, Albert R., Our Background Preparation in Far Eastern Studies Needs Reexamination, 53.
- Doerr, Arthur H., A Plea for Improved Writing in the Social Sciences, 127.
- Eckhauser, Irwin A., Visual and Other Aids, 33, 68, 113, 151, 190, 234, 270.
- Ellsworth, Edward W., Reform Not Revolt: A Study of British Education, 243.
- Fisher, Marguerite J., The Indian General Election of 1957, 90.
- Fisher, Wm. H., History as Humanism, 63.
- Garwood, John D., Bankers' Sons Don't Teach, 203.
- Gersh, Gabriel, Communism, 3.
- Gross, R. E. and Allen, D. W., Upside Down but Not Backwards: Beginning U. S. History with a Unit on Current Events, 180.
- Harr, David W., Book Reviews and Book Notes, 34, 70, 115, 153, 191, 236, 272.
- High, James, Testing an Eighteenth-Century Personality, 55.
- Hightower, Estelle, Pupils Have Purposes Too, 144.
- Holmes, Lowell D., It's More Than Bones And Old Stones, 220.
- Hubin, Irene A., The Evaluation of Citizenship, 96.
- Levin, Samuel M., Ideas and the Educational Process, 258.
- Lottick, Kenneth V., New England Transplanted, 173.
- Madder, Theodore M., Some Contrasts Between Soviet and American Education, 102.
- Mollenkof, Leonard A., Curriculum Improvement in Social Studies, 216.
- Monier, Robert B., and Vent, Herbert J., A Definition and Framework for Geography, 263.
- Monier, R. B. and Vent, H. J., Kashmir and the Kashmir Impasse, 46.
- Odle, Thomas D., Social Criticism and the New Social Science, 123.
- Palmer, R. Roderick, Should Religion Be Taught in the Public Schools? 17.
- Patrick, T. L., Was George Right? 24.
- Pundt, Alfred G., Privilege in Pre-revolutionary France: The Twilight of the Feudal Order, 207.
- Radabaugh, J. S., The Militia as a Social Outlet in Colonial Massachusetts, 106.
- Roucek, Joseph S., Reflections on My Visit to Titoland, 255.
- Russ, William A., Jr., The Great Depression in Retrospect, 8.
- Seiler, Grace, The Destruction of the Pequods, 27.
- Shannon, William H., The Original Plan of Maryland's First Integrated School, 140.
- Sica, Morris G., A Yardstick for Good School Citizenship, 60.
- Spey, J. M., The Future Pattern of West Indies Government, 185.
- Spiegel, Sydney B., Who Were the Cattle Rustlers? A Look at the Johnson County War in Wyoming, 222.
- van der Kroef, Justus M., Anti-Americanism Abroad: The Indonesian Case, 135.
- Vent, Herbert J., and Monier, Robert B., A Definition and Framework for Geography, 263.
- Vent, H. J. and Monier, R. B., Kashmir and the Kashmir Impasse, 46.
- Wessel, Robert H., Income Taxation and the Desire to Work, 218.
- Winthrop, Henry, The Folkways of Academic Snobbery, 83.
- Wolfgang, Marvin E., Delinquency and Crime as Part of A Course of Social Studies, 20.
- Wrigg, William, The Great Debates—A Centenary, 43.

ARTICLES

- Anti-Americanism Abroad: The Indonesian Case, Justus M. van der Kroef, 135.
- As the Editor Sees It, 2, 42, 82, 122, 162, 202, 242.
- Bankers' Sons Don't Teach, John D. Garwood, 203.
- Book Reviews and Book Notes, David W. Harr, 34, 70, 115, 153, 191, 236, 272.
- British Education, Reform, Not Revolt: A Study of, Edward W. Ellsworth, 243.
- Cattle Rustlers? A Look at the Johnson County War in Wyoming, Who Were the, Sydney B. Spiegel, 222.
- Citizenship, A Yardstick for Good School, Morris G. Sica, 60.
- Citizenship, The Evaluation of, Irene A. Hubin, 96.
- Communism, Gabriel Gersh, 3.
- Congressional Reapportionment by the Method of Equal Proportions, P. C. Bartholomew and R. Aaron, 51.
- Congressmen, Meet Our, Elizabeth Beale, 100.
- Current Events, Upside Down but Not Backwards: Beginning U. S. History with a Unit on, R. E. Gross and D. W. Allen, 180.
- Current Publications Received, 40, 80, 120, 160, 199, 240, 276.
- Curriculum Improvement in Social Studies, Leonard A. Mollenkoff, 216.
- Debates — A Centenary, The Great, William Wrigg, 43.
- Delinquency and Crime as Part of A Course of Social Studies, Marvin E. Wolfgang, 20.
- Depression in Retrospect, The Great, William A. Russ, Jr., 8.
- Destruction of the Pequods, The, Grace Seiler, 27.
- Education, Some Contrasts Between Soviet and American, Theodore M. Madder, 102.
- Eighteenth-Century Personality, Testing an, James High, 55.
- Far Eastern Studies Needs Re-examination, Our Background Preparation in, Albert R. Brinkman, 53.
- Feudal Order, Privilege in Pre-revolutionary France: The Twilight of the, Alfred G. Pundt, 207.
- Folkways of Academic Snobbery, The, Henry Winthrop, 83.
- France: The Twilight of the Feudal Order, Privilege in Pre-revolutionary, Alfred G. Pundt, 207.
- Geography, A. Definition and Framework for, Herbert J. Vent, and Robert B. Monier, 263.
- Helpful Classroom Aids, 39, 80, 119, 160, 199, 240, 276.
- Humanism, History as, Wm. H. Fisher, 63.
- Ideas and the Educational Process, Samuel M. Levin, 258.
- Income Taxation and the Desire to Work, Robert H. Wessel, 218.
- Indian General Election of 1957, The, Marguerite J. Fisher, 90.
- Indonesian Case, Anti-Americanism Abroad: The, Justus M. van der Kroef, 135.
- Integrated School, The Original Plan of Maryland's First, William H. Shannon, 140.
- It's More Than Bones And Old Stones, Lowell D. Holmes, 220.
- Kashmir and the Kashmir Impasse, H. J. Vent and R. B. Monier, 46.
- Maryland's First Integrated School, The Original Plan of, William H. Shannon, 140.
- Massachusetts, The Militia as a Social Outlet in Colonial, J. S. Radabaugh, 106.
- Militia as a Social Outlet in Colonial Massachusetts, The, J. S. Radabaugh, 106.
- New England Transplanted, Kenneth V. Lottick, 173.
- Pequods, The Destruction of the, Grace Seiler, 27.
- Pobiedonostzeff, Konstantin, 1827-1905. Victor L. Albjerg, 249.
- Pupils Have Purposes Too, Estelle Hightower, 144.
- Reform, Not Revolt: A Study of British Education, Edward W. Ellsworth, 243.
- Religion Be Taught in the Public Schools? Should, R. Roderick Palmer, 17.
- Social Criticism and the New Social Science, Thomas D. Odle, 123.
- Soviet and American Education, Some Contrasts Between, Theodore M. Madder, 102.
- Soviet Foreign Policy, Some Basic Keys to, Richard H. Bauer, 163.
- Teachers' Page, The, Hyman M. Boodish, 29, 65, 109, 146, 187, 231, 267.
- Testing an Eighteenth-Century Personality, James High, 55.
- Titoland, Reflections on My Visit to, Joseph S. Roucek, 255.
- Upside Down but Not Backwards: Beginning U. S. History With a Unit on Current Events, R. E. Gross and D. W. Allen, 180.
- Visual and Other Aids, Irwin A. Eckhauser, 33, 68, 113, 151, 190, 234, 270.
- Was George Right? T. L. Patrick, 24.
- West Indies Government, The Future Pattern of, J. M. Spey, 185.
- Writing in the Social Sciences, A Plea for Improved, Arthur H. Doerr, 127.
- Wyoming, Who Were the Cattle Rustlers? A Look at the Johnson County War in, Sydney B. Spiegel, 222.
- Yardstick for Good School Citizenship, A, Morris G. Sica, 60.

BOOK REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Arranged Alphabetically by Author's Name

(Reviewer's Name in Parenthesis)

- Anshen, Ruth Nanda, *Mid-East: World-Center. Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow*, 34. (Horace V. Harrison)
- Barbar, James, *The Honorable Eighty-Eight*, 157. (Joseph S. Roucek)
- Barron, Milton L., *American Minorities, A Textbook of Readings in Intergroup Relations*, 153. (P. B. Sparks)
- Becker, Gary S., *The Economics of Discrimination*, 192. (Anne Bishop)
- Bernard, Jessie, *Social Problems at Midcentury*, 115. (Richard E. Gross)
- Boetzke, Ottilie, *The Seed is Sown*, 155. (Frank Goodwyn)
- Brill, John, *The Chance Character of Human Existence*, 71. (W. E. Schlaretzki)
- Bruun, Geoffrey, *The World in the Twentieth Century*, 73. (Peter R. Senn)
- Chirovsky, N. L., *The Economic Factors in the Growth of Russia*, 77. (Frank A. Scholfield)
- Colegrove, Kenneth, *Democracy Versus Communism*, 273. (Richard E. Gross)
- Dimond, S. E. and Pflieger, E. F., *Our American Government*, 157. (Irene A. Hubin)
- Falk, Minna R., *The History of Germany: From the Reformation to the Present Day*, 78. (Richard W. Reichard)
- Frazier, E. Franklin, *The Negro in the United States*, 35. (Sydney B. Spiegel)
- Gavian, Wood, Hamm, *The American Story*, 38. (William H. Shannon)
- Gewehr, Wesley M., *American Civilization, A History of The United States*, 158. (Donald W. Robinson)
- Giles, H. Harry, *Education and Human Motivation*, 36. (Donald K. Plumroy)
- Gompers, Samuel, *Seventy Years of Life and Labor: An Autobiography*, 76. (Peter R. Senn)
- Goodman and Moore, *Today's Economics*, 72. (W. H. Shannon)
- Graham, Saxon, *American Culture: An Analysis of Its Development and Present Characteristics*, 75. (William S. Felton)
- Guins, George C., *Communism on the Decline*, 153. (Richard H. Bauer)
- Heath, Spencer, *Citadel, Market and Altar: Emerging Society*, 158. (Wayne C. Rohrer)
- Karolyi, Catherine, *Memoirs of Michael Karolyi*, 275. (Joseph S. Roucek)
- Kohl, Joseph A., *The American Class Structure*, 78. (Frank A. Scholfield)
- Lamar, H. R., *Dakota Territory 1861-1889—A Study of Frontier Politics*, 72. (W. M. Gewehr)
- Leroi-Gourhan, A., *Prehistoric Man*, 157. (Joseph S. Roucek)
- Levy, A. V., *Other People's Children*, 71. (Wayne C. Neely)
- Loneragan, Bernard J. F., *Insight, A Study of Human Understanding*, 156. (Kenneth V. Lottick)
- Montagu, M. F. Ashley, *Anthropology and Human Nature*, 237. (Wayne C. Neely)
- Montagu, M. F. A., *Marriage: Past and Present, a Debate Between Robert Briffault and Bronislaw Malinowski*, 70. (Wayne C. Neely)
- Maslow, Paul, *Intuition Versus Intellect*, 238. (Norma Wegner)
- McKeon, R., Merton, R. K. and Gellhorn, W., *The Freedom to Read: Perspective and Program*, 116. (Joseph S. Roucek)
- Mercer, Blaine E., *An Introduction to the Study of Society*, 275. (Wayne C. Neely)
- Mosse, G. L., Cameron, R. E., Hill, H. B. and Petrovich, M. B., *Europe in Review*, 194. (Richard H. Bauer)
- Munzer, Egbert, *Solov'yev*, 76. (Joseph S. Roucek)
- O'Connor, D. J., *An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education*, 156. (Joseph S. Roucek)
- Parker, William H., *Parker on Police*, 154. (Anne Bishop)
- Pisani, Lawrence Frank, *The Italian in America, A Social Study and History*, 274. (Kenneth V. Lottick)
- Radcliffe-Brown, A. R., *A Natural Science of Society*, 237. (Ephraim H. Mizruchi)
- Rich, Bennet M., *The Government and Administration of New Jersey*, 193. (Victor Bahou)
- Rienow, Robert, *American Government in Today's World*, 191. (John L. Keynes)
- Rodell, F., *Nine Men*, 118. (Howard D. Hamilton)
- Roelofs, H. Mark, *The Tension of Citizenship, Private Man and Public Duty*, 198. (William H. Shannon)
- Rowland, John, *Mysteries of Science*, 196. (Anne Bishop)
- Runes, Dagobert D., *A Book of Contemplation*, 195. (Joseph S. Roucek)
- Schlesinger, A. M., Jr., *The Crisis of The Old Order*, 116. (Donald W. Robinson)
- Schneider, Wilbert M., *The American Bankers Association: Its Past and Present*, 272. (Donald W. Robinson)
- Sherif, Muzafer, and Sherif, Carolyn W., *An Outline of Social Psychology*, 37. (Richard E. Gross)
- Skidmore, R. A., Garrett, H. V. S. and Skidmore, C. J., *Marriage Consulting: An Introduction to Marriage Counseling*, 79. (Wayne C. Neely)
- Soule, G. and Carosso, V. P., *American Economic History*, 197. (Leonard F. Ralston)
- Stanley, Timothy W., *American Defense and National Security*, 236. (Roland N. Stromberg)
- Steiner, Franz, *Taboo*, 75. (Joseph S. Roucek)
- Thorne, Florence C., *Samuel Gompers—American Statesman*, 238. (Leonard F. Ralston)
- Wilson, Ruth, *Here is Haiti*, 37. (Sydney B. Spiegel)
- Wittmer, Felix, *Conquest of the American Mind: Comments on Collectivism in Education*, 74. (Earl S. Beard)
- Woodring, Paul, *A Fourth of a Nation*, 194. (R. J. Brown)
- Wylie, Laurence, *Village in the Vaucluse*, 236. (Joseph S. Roucek)

MCKINLEY WALL OUTLINE MAPS

Size 32 inches by 44 inches

These maps are printed on a specially prepared paper of a neutral tint and strong texture.

They can be colored with ink, crayon or water color and preserved for permanent use as a finished Wall Map.

Two gummed suspension rings are furnished with each map.

The Continents

The World (Mercator's Projection).
Europe (boundaries of 1921).
Europe (boundaries of 1914).
Asia.
Africa.
North America.
South America.
Australia.

The United States and Sections

United States State boundaries and physical features.
United States (State boundaries only).
Eastern United States.
New England.
Middle Atlantic States.
South Atlantic States.
Mississippi Valley, Northern Section.
Mississippi Valley, Southern Section.
Pacific Coast and Plateau States.

Special Subjects

England
British Isles.
France and England.
Greece and Aegean Sea.
Italy.
Eastern World.
Palestine.
Roman Empire.
Balkan Region.

Price, 1 to 4 maps, 55 cents each postpaid.

5 or more maps, 38 cents each, postage extra.

CROSS-RULED GRAPH PAPER—WALL SIZE

Sheets of stout paper 32 x 48 inches, ruled in both directions, with blocks one-fifth inch square, and heavy ruling every two inches.

Price, 1 to 4 sheets, 55 cents each postpaid.

5 to 10 sheets, 38 cents each, postage extra.

11 sheets or over, 35 cents each, postage extra.

McKinley Publishing Co.

809-811 North 19th Street

Philadelphia 30, Pa.



DENOYER-GEPPERT OUTLINE MAPS

In different sizes and types

*Widely used from the elementary
school thru college and university.*

Junior-Size WALL OUTLINE MAPS, 46x35 Inches

W04	Africa	W025	Italy	W090	Roman Empire
W086	Alexander's Empire	W0117	Louisiana	W06	South America
W056	Americas	W0119	Maryland	W0142	Texas
W03	Asia	W036	Mediterranean Lands	W01	U. S., with Rivers
W010	Australia	W067	Mexico	W01s	U. S., no Rivers
W0105	California	W0123	Mississippi	W0171a	U. S., Eastern (2-on)
W077	Caribbean	W05	North America	W0173	U. S., Southeastern
W013	England and Wales	W059	New York City	W079	World, Americas Centered
W02	Europe	W0131	New York State	W081	World, Ancient
W0200	Graph Chart	W021	Pacific Lands	W057	World, North Polar
W085	Greece	W0165	Pacific N. W., 44" x 48"	W057b	World, N. Polar, Blue Seas
W0189	Hawaii	W0137	Pennsylvania	W079c	World, Oceans Condensed
				W099	World, Semi-elliptical

Senior-Size WALL OUTLINE MAPS, 64x44 Inches

W0151a	Br. Columbia	W0165a	Pacific N. W.	W01a	U. S., City Symbols, Rivers, Mts.*
W012a	British Isles	W0140a	S. Dakota	W01Sa	U. S., no Rivers * Mts. in brown
W0112a	Illinois	W052a	U.S.S.R.	W079a	World, Americas Centered
W0114a	Iowa	W0143a	Utah	W099a	World, Europe Centered
W0121a	Michigan	W0145a	Virginia	W079ac	World, Oceans Condensed
W0131a	Ohio	W0148a	Wisconsin		

Double Senior-Size WALL OUTLINE MAPS, 86x64 Inches

W099b World, Semi-elliptical W081 United States

CARTOCRAFT DESK OUTLINE "DO" MAPS

Nearly 300 desk outline maps in two styles and three sizes

11 x 8½" — 16 x 11" — 22 x 16" — with mountains — without mountains
Lithographed in blue on white paper which takes ink, pencil, and water color.

SLATED OUTLINE MAPS

Cartocraft "Blue Seas" series 64x50" and 44x50"
Ravenswood "One Print" series 64x50" and 44x50"
Printed on slated cloth surfaced for chalk writing.

WHITEBOARD OUTLINE MAPS

36 Re-MARK-able Outline maps mounted back-to-back on panel. Size 44 x 32". Durable lacquer on maps permits use of special crayon which can easily be wiped off and maps used repeatedly.



Write for circulars G1c - G9

DENOYER-GEPPERT Co.

5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago 40, Illinois

